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ABSTRACT

The leadership of the foreign language education profession convened to discuss the major issues for that profession in the 1980s. Several papers each were devoted to the following subjects: (1) curriculum and materials, (2) global education, (3) evaluation, (4) research, and (5) teacher education. Brief reaction papers for each subject are appended. (JB)

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Proceedings of the National Conference on Professional Priorities

November 1980
Boston, Massachusetts

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages

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Foreword

The Professional Priorities Conference of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages is history. It was held in Boston, in November of 1980, just prior to the ACTFL Annual Meeting. Its purpose was to bring the professional leadership together to focus on the major issues which those leaders felt important at that moment.

The Professional Priorities Conference was the culmination of several years of discussions on the priorities of ACTFL and the priorities of the profession for the 1980s and beyond. In fact, it could be said that the sorting out process began as early as the birth of ACTFL. Each and every ACTFL president has in some way struggled with this issue. Thus, in a sense, the conference is the result of the concerns about second language education of each and every president and executive council since 1967. But there are three such presidents that need to be acknowledged for their specific efforts in directing our attention toward goal and priority-setting activities. Those presidents are: Howard Altman, Lorraine Strasheim, and Jane Bourque. Without the environment which they encouraged within ACTFL circles, this conference might not have been so successful.

A further note suggests that the major papers stand by themselves. They are rewritten versions of the papers given at the conference. Authors were given an opportunity to rewrite them. The reaction papers, however, are included in an edited and somewhat shortened form even though they were not rewritten. It was felt that they deserved to be included to give an overall flavor of the conference. In some cases they present arguments which take issue with a current trend or direction suggested in a major paper. Such divergence in thinking is appropriate to present in this context. It made the major presenters think; we hope it will be of concern to the reader also.

A special word of thanks must be extended to Keith A. Foiles, Senior Vice-President of Harcourt Brace Jovanovich Inc., who obtained major funding from HBJ for the conference. We also extend our thanks to Scott, Foresman and Company and its Editorial Vice-President for Foreign Languages, English as a Second Language, and Bilingual Education, Betty Ryan, who through corporate sponsorship, designated and provided other needed monies to support the conference.

A final note of thanks goes to Ed Scebold, the Executive Director, whose foresight and encouragement made this conference and this publication possible, and to Cathy Linder, Special Assistant to the Executive Director, for her careful preparation of this publication.

Dale L. Lange
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CURRICULUM AND MATERIALS

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Opening Address

Foreign Language and the Humanistic Tradition: The Relationship to the Coming Decade

Claire L. Gaudiani, fellow 1980-81
National Humanities Center

Foreign language study has always been a part of the humanities. In the coming decade, I hope that language teachers at all levels accept two challenges: we must consider and define the specific ways in which our classrooms help students to achieve the goals of humanities education, rather than taking for granted our natural relationship to the humanistic tradition; and we must develop ways to illustrate the common ground between the humanities and sciences as we teach foreign languages, rather than accepting as unbridgeable the gap between them.

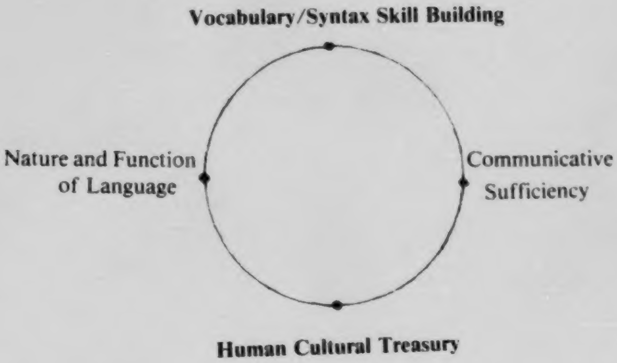
The results of these efforts will prove exciting. We will remember that our primary role is as teachers of the humanities. We will help prepare students for dual literacy: basic competence in the world of science as well as in the world of humanities. Our classrooms will offer a challenging intellectual milieu that will balance the discipline and tedium of memorization crucial to basic language learning.

The Foreign Language Classroom: Seed-bed of Humanities Education

Foreign language teachers are humanists. The humanities focus on the study of values, experience, and achievements of human culture. Humanistic education involves continuing practice in the skills of writing and reading, speaking, listening, and analysis or critical thinking. The goal of a humanistic education is to encourage the development of responsible citizens with cultural, esthetic, and spiritual sensitivities, an historical sense, a logical and creative mind, and an ability to articulate clearly, to evaluate wisely, and to act virtuously. Ideally, these citizens are marked with a sense of personal responsibility for themselves and society.

Foreign language classrooms focus on the four communication skills that form the basis of humanities education. The study of civilization and texts hones students' analytical skills. Exposure to other peoples and their cultures advances the goals of good citizenship in the national and global sense. Students gain familiarity with the universal treasures of the race of *homo sapiens*.

What are the components of a humanistically-centered foreign language classroom? I recognize four integrated parts. I conceive of these parts in a circular relation rather than in a sequential or hierarchical structure. Students and teacher move as it is appropriate to each of these points on the circle.


Vocabulary/Syntax Skill Building
Nature and Function of Language
Communicative Sufficiency
Human Cultural Treasury

Vocabulary and Syntax Building

Students must achieve measurable levels of proficiency in the target language. Teaching grammar, vocabulary, and syntax remains, therefore, a primary feature of the course. Excellent teachers consider that "people minutes" fly by in multiples of the class enrollment number. Drill sessions can often produce better results in small-group sessions led by peers or student-apprentices. Where possible computers can help. Memorization is a disciplined and lonely task. Verification of the fruits of this task ought not absorb premium class time.

We need not shy away from asking that students commit vocabulary or model syntactical arrangements to memory. We should, however, explain clearly that they are learning a version of the multiplication tables or the rules for executing long division. In fact, all disciplines (and even games) have vocabulary and functional codes that must be mastered before a novice can join the group to gain additional practice and develop fluency and eventually, a personal style or approach. Whether it be microbiology, auto mechanics, or touch football, many of the same elements apply to early learning sequences. Language classrooms can be links to math and science classrooms if students are helped to notice comparable modes of inquiry and approaches to mastery at the initial stages.

Many fine methods exist now to teach basic language skills. Teachers ought to choose materials which suit their personality and teaching style, consider the ways to best utilize the "people minutes" of the class, and explain the concepts governing early language acquisition. Students do not always discriminate learning styles.

Communicative Sufficiency

Beyond just vocabulary and basic syntax, foreign language teachers deal with the sorting and the organization and expression of ideas with some degree of intelligibility and integrity. This is the *communicative sufficiency level*. Here, it is not easy to employ a student-apprentice or to use a computer. Here we need the gift of a good teacher, someone who can foster and develop communication skills in the students. This is a much more complex kind of learning; however, it relates, in terms of general humanities education, to basic skills in speaking, writing, reading and understanding. Instead of occurring in one language, it occurs in two—English and the target language. Literacy would be advanced more successfully using a comparative/contrastive mode.[1] The goal, at this level, involves expression of creative ideas in a second language, as well as the formulation of significant questions.

Human Cultural Treasury

The third level of humanities teaching in the foreign language classroom involves advancing students' understanding of human diversity through a basic introduction to cultural anthropology and through the study of texts and artifacts. We can teach more than surface culture, and not necessarily limit ourselves to high culture and high art. We can teach about a given culture's definition of "the good life;" we can teach how that culture conceives of time; the people's concept of nature, or order; the qualities of kinship relationships in that culture; its use of space. We can expose our students to the rudiments of cultural anthropology in language classrooms, even if relevant and challenging reading must be done in English and discussed bilingually.

In addition, many teachers see the need to teach students about the diverse range of nations, cultures, and geographical areas where the foreign language is spoken. Broad exposure to cultural diversity is a primary element in the language classroom and can aid students in their development of tolerance and compassion. For most teachers, our own more narrow training may slow our progress toward teaching multicultural diversity. The lack of good quality teaching material has been a problem as well, but this difficulty is being resolved rapidly.[2]

Sensitivity to human diversity can also accompany the development of esthetic sensibility. Students learn the satisfaction of reading and interpreting human experience. They meet the cultural treasures of another language through study of short texts, even in elementary language classes, and learn to recognize universal human elements in these texts.

Like all language teachers, I have many favorite examples of texts that surprise students. Two in particular have elicited the kind of instant recognition that teachers long to see in their students' faces. The first is Villon's "Ballade des Dames" with its refrain, "Mais où sont les neiges d'antan?" After two readings of the poem and some discussion, I ask the students what the poem might mean. What does the poem communicate about anything at all in life? Some look disgruntled; others may talk about nostalgia. I ask them to answer the poet's question: "Mais, où sont les neiges d'antan?" "Melted," they tell me. "Where?" I ask. "In the ground," they finally answer. "Yes," I say, and then I ask the poet's question again. Impatient, they search for another answer. Finally someone realizes some of the snow has evaporated. "Where?" I ask. "Up into the sky," they finally reply. For the third time, I ask the poet's question. The students are at a loss. "If you can remember them," I hint, "où sont les neiges d'antan?" "In our memories," they finally blurt out. "And where," I ask them, "are the great people—heroes and heroines who are no longer alive?" "Their bodies are in the ground. Their souls are up in heaven with God. They remain on earth in our memories." Next: those moments of satisfaction and pleasure that follow hard work. We reread the poem together. I have helped students to expect and to seek meaning in a text. We can discuss the religious nature of the medieval context and compare it with our world view. We can discuss the particular nature of the list of great women, most of whom are unknown to students. Then we compare this to the universal notion of hero/heroine in any society or for any individual. Students have seen a jewel in the treasury of human culture.

The second example involves a reading of Dante's lines spoken by Montefeltro (*Divine Comedy*, Canto XXVII).

> *S'io credessi che mia risposta fosse a persona che mai tornasse al mondo, questa fiamma staria senza più scosse. Ma per ciò che giammai di questo fondo non tornò vivo alcun, s'i'odo il vero, senza tema d'infamia ti rispondo.*

I show the students how the hissing "s" sounds mimic the sound of the flame that envelops the sinner. They see how poets can make more than just meaning in words serve the poem's purpose to communicate significance. They enjoy the magic of the sound and the ironic twist in the meaning. I hand out T. S. Eliot's "The Love Song and J. Alfed Prufrock" which opens with these lines.

These moments whet students' appetite for literature, refine their aesthetic sensibilities, and help them to appreciate the wonderful creations of their fellow human beings. These moments also serve another purpose: when we show students the texts, we perform a kind of magic. We mediate between the text and the new reader and guide the two toward each other until "the magic flash." My students usually know why I have always wanted to be a language teacher when they have seen me "do magic," "turn lead into gold." They come to know me better, but more importantly, they also begin to suspect that, with practice, they can learn to do magic, to make comprehensible and beautiful what was meaningless and dull.

Nature and Function of Language

We need to show students what language is. They should explore the nature and function of human language. As they study the basic elements of the target language, they should also learn, for instance, to compare human language to machine language, that is, artificial language. What are the advantages of precision, universality, and predictability, each of which is a signal quality of machine language?

What are its limits? What conditions does it describe? The system behind this language is digital logic. Philosophers have long sought a human language with the advantages of computer language. What qualities do human languages have? How do these qualities relate to the *human* intellect? What are the advantages and disadvantages of each system? Students may decide that machine languages are only really *foreign* languages. They may appreciate the nuances, individuality, and richness in human language while still perceiving the great service that computer languages provide.

This kind of education in the foreign language classroom advances humanities education. It enhances students' ability to make critical distinctions and arrive at value judgments. It prepares them for the signal challenges of the next decades which, I believe, will center on our continuing to appreciate the full range of capacities within the human mind despite the omnipresence of seductively efficient, dependable, "rational" computers.

In addition, the nature and function of the language component ought to include answers to the question "What is language?" posed to a psychologist, a philosopher, a lawyer, a neurophysiologist, a mathematician, and a theologian as well as a semiotician, a poet, a congressman, and a writer. Some of these individuals may answer the question during a visit to a class. Others may contribute their perspectives through published articles that students can read and discuss. I have suggested that where possible, video or audio tapes be used to build a reserve of responses.

Students in any one class may only be exposed to three or four perspectives during their language course. The objective of the exposure is to make them less naive about the implications of language in general as they study a specific language new to them. Ultimately, this broad look at language may help students to compare mathematics, the language of science, to the language of human beings. For instance, I have my students consider relationships in the two sign systems:

Human language	**Mathematics**
word:	number
sentence:	formula
analogy, or metaphor:	design model or diagram

In substituting examples for each equation, they develop a list of attributes for each "language." They use this list as a springboard to questions for the math professor who comes to talk to them about what language means in his or her discipline. I am using the foreign language classroom to induce students to consider scientific and humanistic properties of language, and the two modes of inquiry that structure human thought.

The consciously humanities-based language classroom can develop second language skills while still offering students rigorous intellectual and aesthetic components. Although some of this work may be done in English, or in a bilingual setting, the inclusion of these components will mitigate one of the serious problems of adolescent and adult second language learners: frustration. Elementary and intermediate language classes reduce students of any age to the verbal level of toddlers. They most often must abandon their sense of humor and expectations for intellectual content on a par with their other courses. Their lack of language facility simply makes these two elements luxuries they cannot afford at their novice levels. These sacrifices are part of early language learning in any methodology for adolescents or adults. We must, however, strengthen the intellectual and aesthetic components even if we accomplish less grammar and do some assignments in English. We must mitigate this situation for three reasons:

(1) We are humanities teachers first, language teachers, second. We have a primary obligation to support the full range of the goals of humanistic studies. Otherwise, we trivialize our discipline and our contribution to education.

(2) Our students need and deserve the more broadly based curriculum suggested above. It creates a context for future language learning should students need better skills. However, this humanities context will, itself, always be necessary to our students' personal and professional lives.

(3) Nowhere in institutional or departmental mission statements do I see the expectation that students become bilingual or even competent in two languages.[3] I do see that the institutions we serve expect that students will develop a global perspective, intellectual breadth, aesthetic sensibilities, and communication skills. The early language sequences in most institutions should reflect these larger objectives. Our colleagues, students, and academic officers may fear that we will deliver neither bilinguals nor more broadly educated students from our classes. Sometimes, unfortunately, their worst fears come true. We ought to consider how to meet the expectations of our constituencies as these are stated to us. If we work toward the balance suggested by the four units of the humanities-based foreign language curriculum, we indicate that we understand these expectations and have a plan to meet them.

The Foreign Language Classroom in the 1980s

The coming decade offers great promise for the foreign language profession. Many excellent initiatives have been taken by colleagues in our field. Political activity has indicated that we can induce civic and governmental forces to benefit the educational sector. Cross-curricular efforts make foreign language classes responsive to the needs of business, law, and health professions. Other programs have begun to meet American students' needs for a global perspective through internationalizing the curriculum. Non-traditional time frames for language study now permit a variety of formats for the range of student needs. All of these developments suggest a fine future. In honesty, however, we must admit that the majority of these changes have occurred in response to the enormous and often destructive pressures of the last ten years. Some changes resulted from response to fads; others, from the need to survive. Neither makes for sound educational progress. On the other hand, innovation simply for its own sake saps strength and credibility from programs, faculty, and students.

In the eighties, I hope we will build our foreign language curricula based on a carefully thought-out educational philosophy.[4] We must return our discipline to the heart of humanities education. I hope that our implementation will develop from our sensitivity to our students' incoming and future needs as well as from our desire to share our knowledge of the treasures of human experience. Ultimately though, this curriculum can only succeed if we remain convinced of the importance of our own mission. We are mediators in language classes between the intellectual and cultural treasury of the past and the students we prepare for the future. Never will a strong grounding in humanistic studies be more important to a generation.

NOTES

1. We share most teaching goals with our colleagues in English since we are all teachers of language, literature, culture, critical thinking. See my article on teaching composition in a comparative writing course intended to improve English composition skills while teaching foreign language composition skills: "French Composition Teaching: A Student-Generated Text Editing Approach," *French Review*, 53 (1979), 232-38.

2. For example, Prof. Beatrice S. Clark, Hampton Institute, has received NEH support to develop teaching modules for use in elementary and intermediate language classes. These modules introduce Afro-Hispanic and Afro-French culture and literature in an imaginative and appealing way.

3. For more discussion of the relationship of foreign language curricula to institutional goals, see Gwendola Fish, "Together We Move: Relating Language Programs to Institutional Priorities in a Small Liberal Arts College," *ADFL Bulletin*, 12(Nov. 1980), pp. 14-19. Also, in the same issue Claud DuVerlie and Alan Rosenthal have written "Climbing the Ladder of Institutional Priorities," pp. 4-7.

4. See R. Brod, *MLA Task Force on Foreign Languages*, 1980, for additional discussion of foreign languages in humanities context.

Practical Implications of New Trends and Directions

Wilga M. Rivers
Harvard University

At the threshold of the 1980s, we may observe, internationally and intranationally, two divergent trends which are potential sources of tension and conflict: world-wide interdependence and realization and assertion of identity. As nations, and linguistic and ethnic groupings within nations, become more and more aware that they must share and conserve the same natural resources, that they cannot exist without the product of each other's labor, and that they need each other's knowledge and expertise to meet the demands of contemporary living, they seem to rebel against the loss of identity such interdependence fosters, reasserting their independence as self-conscious entities. ("I am me. Respect me!") It is for concord and productive living in such a world that we are preparing our students through their education.

Essential to harmonious living in the world of the eighties is the ability to comprehend others: not only the words they speak or write, but also their ways of thinking, their aspirations, and their spoken and unspoken demands. Ability to comprehend and also to communicate clearly ourselves is fundamental to the conduct of mutually beneficial enterprises (in government, in business, in social amelioration), but also to everyday life in the multilingual and multicultural societies which are coming into being all over the world. The Soviet Union, for instance, is an assemblage of many national groups. West Germany, France, and the United Kingdom, with other national entities of Europe, not only find workers and scholars of diverse nationalities indispensable to their functioning, but are now educating native-born children of many ethnic origins. Societies of the type the United States has known for a century have existed for even longer periods in Africa, Asia, and the Middle East, and are now the norm, rather than the exception, world-wide. Our students must learn to live with such diversity and accept its self-conscious assertiveness.

As a result of these changes, knowledge of more than one language and multicultural sensitivity have become urgent and essential elements of education. Attention to linguistic needs is already a priority in many parts of Europe, not only in schools but in continuing education,[1] and developing nations have had to make provision for the learning of several languages by their children in order to survive. The work of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies and of its successor, the National Council on Foreign Language and International Studies, is gradually awakening the public to the linguistic needs of the United States, and interest in other languages is slowly gathering force.

The direction that education will take grows out of national and community conviction, and the needs that foreign language study should meet in the next decade will not be decided by teachers themselves, nor by professors in the universities. They will be determined by the deliberations of community leaders, as they respond to the needs of society. Their recommendations will influence how parents and students appraise language-related career opportunities, as well as the value that local communities place on developing the multilingual and multicultural potential of our youth.

Already two directions have been indicated by the President's Commission and the National Council: the desirability for a close link between language learning and international studies, and the need for multilingual personnel for government agencies and international business. A third direction—the fostering of intercommunal understanding within the national entity, and in relations with newly arrived immigrant groups and the ever-increasing migrant population—is recognized by the addition to the Bilingual Education Act, in its 1978 form, of a reference to biculturalism as well as bilingualism. The renewed emphasis in public discussion on the recognition and cultivation of shared values in public education adds force to this third direction, in that any attempt to understand another culture leads inevitably to a closer examination and a clearer recognition of one's own values.

Furthermore, the community is raising serious questions about the apparent failure of educators to teach high school and college students to communicate their ideas and to understand those of others in speech and writing. An understanding of the process of communication and increased facility in it can result from the study of another language if the teaching is directed toward such an outcome.

Finally, the relentless march of technology and the impersonalization of an increasingly mechanized society are reawakening many to the human need for reflection and the nurture of reflection that comes from humanistic studies. Here languages have always had a role, bringing students into contact with provocative ideas, human experiences, and artistic production in print, in visual image, and in the live contact of theater. The spirit of the human race requires more than efficient production and distribution, or rapid communication of the mundane and trivial.

Five Directions for Foreign Language Study in the 80s[2]

1. *Foreign Language and International Studies*

The bald statement that foreign language learning should be linked with international studies does not help the classroom teacher. First must come a discussion with the social studies and modern history teachers of ways in which knowledge of the particular language being taught can be useful in making available collateral readings for existing topics in the syllabus. This modest beginning can lead to the elaboration of topics which integrate the contribution of several subjects. The language teacher can assign the reading of documents, historical and contemporary, which illuminate current attitudes and policies. Where interdisciplinary cooperation is not forthcoming, foreign language teachers must educate themselves further in the background of events in countries where the language being learned is spoken, and the international activities in which these countries are involved. They can direct their students to accounts in current newspapers and magazines of events and developments in countries where the language is spoken, and to reports of these events in American national and local papers. The local reports may then be compared in approach and content with those from the original country. Meanwhile, the language teacher can broaden systematically the students' knowledge of geographic, historical, and economic facts which affect the policies and reactions of these countries, as well as American views of their activities. This in-depth study can be illuminated with maps, slides, documentary films, and videocassettes, or by listening to news broadcasts, commentaries, or recorded speeches.

One of the most effective contributions of foreign language to international studies is organized home-stay exchanges with students in a country where the language is spoken. These should be prepared by careful study of life, institutions, and economic and political policies, and buttressed by a clearly defined research project, which involves reading newspapers and discussing current issues with the young people of the country visited.

To ensure adequate teaching of foreign language and international studies, colleges should establish double majors in the two areas. Teacher training programs should require a foreign language in the preparation of social studies teachers, and some study of international affairs and domestic issues in countries where the language is spoken should form part of the preparation of all foreign language teachers. College summer programs and courses for the further education of inservice teachers should also provide background study for the integration of the two areas, with instruction in ways of supplementing available materials from current media sources.

2. *Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) or Language for Career Preparation*

Any course of language for specific purposes or career preparation should be preceded by a solid basic course which introduces students to the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, with coverage of the major points of the grammar and the acquisition of a vocabulary for general use. After such a basic course, options may be offered which prepare students to use the language in specific work situations.[3] More and more materials are being published with this objective in mind.

Before adopting a career-oriented approach, the foreign language teacher should study the potential clientele in the district, identifying their career aspirations in order to create options which provide for these specific needs.[4] Junior high school is too early for career specialization. High school students' needs will vary according to the school environment (geographical area; urban, suburban or rural community; socioeconomic levels represented; ethnic composition; grade levels at which the language is taught). In most high school programs, a specific career-oriented approach will need to be individualized unless, because of local factors (size of school, concentration of career opportunities), a number of students are headed in the same direction. Specific purpose courses are more clearly appropriate for community college, undergraduate level, or continuing education classes where students who are already conscious of their needs select courses accordingly.

Finally, teachers wishing to make their programs more specifically career-oriented will need to familiarize themselves with the actual foreign language needs of various careers—business, law enforcement, health professions, social work, international business, and so on. Some careers require considerable aural-oral ability, but not writing; others require the ability to read, but not to comprehend aurally. The best example of in-depth preparation for instituting an occupation-oriented approach is the research of the Group of Experts advising the Council of Europe on the institution of a unit-credit system for adult learners. In preparing for this program, researchers analyzed the linguistic needs of adults in 44 occupational categories. The actual activities in which persons engaged in specific occupations would need to use a second language were studied and estimates were made of the degree of proficiency they would require in understanding, speaking, reading, or writing the language.[5] If occupation-specific courses are to be taught with any degree of seriousness, professional organizations should undertake or commission job analysis studies of this type as a guide to teachers.[6]

Furthermore, the teachers themselves should have, or should develop, some familiarity with the work situations in which the language will be used. These can then form the basis for role-playing and simulation games to add authenticity to the material being learned. Finally, teachers should not use the bait of future jobs to encourage students to continue the study of foreign languages, unless they know that such jobs are available, and that the expertise they are communicating will be recognized as an asset by the employers in these occupations.

3. *Language and Inter-Community "Understanding"*

Harmonious living in the 80s implies tolerance and acceptance of difference, willingness to cooperate with others whose ways of viewing and doing things is not ours, and ability to distinguish between what is right and wrong and what is merely another approach to life's problems. Assertion of identity can surprise and antagonize those with the conviction that our community is or should be homogeneous in beliefs, expectations, values, and lifestyles. Understanding of other cultures is of paramount importance in the interdependent modern world.

Talking about other cultures is not enough. Students tend to retain from lectures and readings what confirms their prejudices and reinforces their stereotypes. They do not observe, they easily forget, or they reinterpret what does not conform to their preexisting opinions. For thorough understanding of another culture, students need to live, to some extent, in that culture, to experience it as one brought up in the culture experiences it, and to assimilate this new experience so that it enriches their thinking and their expression of self. Since so much of another culture is expressed in and through its language, foreign language learners are in a better position to penetrate the culture to any depth than those who view it only through accounts in their native language. Learners of another language are better able to relive experiences of the culture emotionally and intellectually through first-hand contact with the popular, the aesthetic, and the intellectual output of its members, and through personal contact with those for whom this culture is their primary experience. As a result, they pass from "Gee! That's what they think!" to "Wow! This is a new way of looking at (or experiencing) things!" As Robinson puts it: "Understanding involves emotional as well as conceptual processes. To understand emotionally implies empathy. Empathy, in turn, implies identification. Learning to identify means merging one's own experience with the target culture. Therefore, if we are successful in promoting identification with people from other cultures, student responses will be unique products which reflect a synthesis of past experience with new cultural and linguistic experiences."[7]

Close experience of another culture is desirable, but not sufficient. This should lead to comparative study of several cultures, and for this to take place there should be frequent interaction among classes of students learning different languages. Roundtable discussions should be held frequently to share material gleaned from newspapers and magazines, films, and songs, with students explaining the viewpoint of the peoples whose languages they are learning. Persons from different cultures should be invited in person to express their views on fundamental life issues such as work, leisure, family, old age, sickness and death, community relations, justice, religion, politics, or societal structure. Food, drink, and manners may be useful starting points, but these must be viewed in relation to geographic and historical factors and the life of the individual within the community. Extending the cultural study to areas other than the country of origin of the language being studied provides opportunities for interesting cross-cultural analysis, as students discover that even an alien language may be absorbed by a living culture and, while subtly changing, may become a channel for other aspirations and values. This approach should certainly be taken with French, Spanish, and Portuguese.

Any study of another culture forces a reconsideration and a deeper understanding of one's own. "Familiarizing students with another culture is not...proselytizing. Students are not expected to surrender or lose confidence in their own culturally-related ways of thinking and valuing. Instead, they begin to bring these to a level of conscious awareness and examine them as they may never have done before in relation to those of others. The study of another culture thus becomes a liberating experience, in that students are encouraged to develop tolerance of other viewpoints and other forms of behavior, while understanding better those of their own society or cultural group."[8] This is an essential experience, if young Americans are not to feel rootless and adrift in a rapidly changing society and a more and more intrusive world.

Much useful advice on activities for teaching cultural understanding can be found in the professional literature.[9] Unfortunately, most college language departments still do not give future language teachers sufficient in-depth training for cross-cultural studies. This must be remedied. Future teachers also need guidance in identifying sources of useful materials and in devising ways of using these materials effectively in class. Publishers, cultural representatives of the countries concerned, or the profession should provide a subscription service for updated cultural material prepared in a form teachers can use in their classes. More culturally oriented materials should also be made available on audio and video cassettes and disks. Although the teaching of another culture has been talked about a great deal for a decade already, most teachers are still not properly prepared for this part of their work and suitable authentic materials of current interest are still sparse and expensive.

Nothing replaces personal contact for cross-cultural understanding. Teachers need it. Students need it. Once again, teacher exchanges and student home-visits must be facilitated, until they are considered an integral part of any language-learning experience. Where there is a community nearby who speak the language being learned, contacts should be established so that students have frequent opportunities to interact with members of the community—helping them, joining in their festivities, and taking an interest in their history, folklore, and everyday customs. In this way, students can render services to the community in return for what they gain through this living contact.

4. *Understanding the Process of Communication*

We frequently talk about the importance of understanding how people communicate, how they encode meanings and convey messages, and of the dangerous lack of communication and frequent misinterpretations which mar personal, national, and international relations. Foreign language teachers should be able to design courses which illuminate this process of communication. To do so effectively, they need to broaden their vision of what foreign language study can contribute to a program of general education. Teaching the grammar and lexicon of another language, particularly when the learning is by rote, does not ensure that students gain an understanding of how meanings are expressed and how language functions in social situations. Blanket application of the dogma that only the foreign language should be heard in the classroom eliminates de facto many opportunities to broaden students' understanding of the nature of language and the nature of communication. Consequently we profess to be interested in doing what is in practice impossible until a considerable amount of language has been learned.

Other approaches are possible. Foreign language teachers should broaden their vision and become involved in courses about the phenomenon of language as such. These may be courses on language prepared in association with the English teacher, the speech teacher, the music teacher, the art teacher, the mathematics teacher, the social studies teacher, or any others who deal with communication of messages through symbols, and the function of such communication within a society. In more advanced foreign language courses, the language teacher may share with the English or speech teacher units which study techniques of persuasion and manipulation, through political propaganda or advertising, the understanding of these processes being clarified by consideration of their operation in several languages. Other units of a comparative nature may be devoted to the messages of nonverbal behavior and the subliminal messages of the physical environment; the messages of silence and song; and the study of language varieties and levels of language as they exist in both the native and foreign language.

At the elementary and junior high school level, exploratory language courses are educational. These may be six-week segments, or may last for one or two semesters. In exploratory language courses, students are given an introduction to one language or to several languages through materials and activities appropriate to the age of the learners. They may be offered as early as kindergarten or first grade or as late as junior or senior high school. Students learn how to pronounce strange sounds; how to greet people in another culture; how to request and what to request; how to sing and play games in the language; how to write the language (at a level where this is appropriate); and how to perform simple everyday tasks commonly performed by people of the other culture. The emphasis is not on the amount of language learned, but on appreciation of the phenomenon of language and the ways it is used, as well as the cultural differences associated with language. (A little Latin is useful in such courses.) If favorable attitudes toward the learning of other languages at some future time are also developed, this is an added bonus. Foreign language teachers should enthusiastically endorse and support all efforts to increase students' sensitivity to language and the wonder of its use, as well as all efforts to refine the use of the native language.

Finally, a foreign language is an instrument and channel of communication. Through using a language themselves for actual communication, in relation to tasks performed jointly, students will learn to appreciate what a finely tuned instrument it can become. Teaching language as an inert mass to be dissected and classified will not make students conscious of its potential in human interaction. Students understand the functions of language in use by using a language.

5. *Language as the Key to Humanistic Studies*

Historically, foreign language study entered the universities, and later the schools, as a poor cousin, not entitled to the respect accorded the study of the classics. After all, millions of uneducated people spoke modern languages. It was generally held that the only educational value they could possibly have was as a key to the works of great writers and philosophers, whose contributions to thought could not be fully appreciated by those who could not read the language in which they wrote. The overemphasis on literary studies, particularly literary criticism, which resulted has tended to obscure the genuinely educational value of intimate contact with the writers and thinkers of any language.

As the world becomes more technologically oriented and control of life seems to pass out of the hands of the individual, it becomes more and more urgent to educate thoughtful, intellectually disciplined citizens, who can recognize when quality of life is being eroded, and consider problems and issues from a viewpoint that transcends the present. Foreign language study must reassert its role in developing educated individuals, who can examine issues, discuss viewpoints, and enjoy the aesthetic stimulation of a good book, a good play, or a good poem.

There will always be a place for a foreign language course which excites discussion and debate through bringing before students well written literature and well developed ideas. Advanced language courses should be developed in universities and in high schools where students whose careers will be in technology, science, business, law, or medicine can think through ideas and relate personal experience to the wider experience of persons in other cultures. Courses of this nature take literature in its broadest sense—a proverb, a children's rhyme, a peasant's tale provide food for thought as rich as a classical play or a modern film. It is the vividness of pursuing ideas in a lively context which makes the experience of lasting educational value. Living out, discussing, imagining, and creating are the techniques for such a class. Students heavily loaded with technological, mathematical, and scientific studies appreciate the change of pace and the opportunity provided to grapple with perennial human issues in a free exchange of ideas. Preparation for a future career in literary research has its place in courses for specialists. Humane studies, on the other hand, are for all, and must be accessible to all.

What Should Be the Emphasis in My Program?

The 1980s demand of teachers a reexamination of their foreign language programs in relation to the types of educational needs their students are experiencing. We cannot rely on the models of the past. Which of the five approaches discussed is appropriate in a particular situation can be ascertained only by consumer research. The teacher must study the student population (or populations, since no student body is homogeneous): their ages, their career orientations, their daily preoccupations, and the way study of another language can meet felt needs or expressed desires.

A questionnaire on students' perceived needs is a beginning.[10] This must be supplemented by teacher observation and attentive listening to students and community. Next, experimental courses are proposed and student response to these is studied to see how they can be further developed or adapted. As demand increases, additional courses of a different orientation or degree of intensity are added, so that students discover opportunities within the language program to study what they would like in the way they would like, instead of being forced into one mold determined by the teacher's preconceptions of how language learning should take place. Only with thoughtful attention to flexible course development will teachers be ready to meet the challenge of the 80s with programs which may survive into the 90s.

NOTES

1. The political and educational response to societal needs for language teaching to adults under the auspices of the Council of Europe are described in detail in W. M. Rivers and B. J. Melvin, "Language Learners as Individuals: Discovering Their Needs, Wants, and Learning Styles," in J. E. Alatis, H. B. Altman, and P. M. Alatis, eds., *The Second Language Classroom: Directions for the 1980's* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1981), pp. 82-83.

2. A detailed discussion of ten trends in American education to which foreign language teachers may have to adjust, with recommendations for action, will be found in W. M. Rivers, "Educational Goals: The Foreign Language Teacher's Response," in W. C. Born, ed., *The Foreign Language Learner in Today's Classroom Environment* (Middlebury, VT: Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1979), pp. 19-34.

3. A basic course, with later options, is the direction taken by the New York State curriculum guide, *Modern Languages for Everyone* (Albany, N.Y.: State Education Department, 1978).

4. A systematic approach to discovering the types of courses students need, with a questionnaire which may be adapted to specific requirements is given in Rivers, "Educational Goals: The Foreign Language Teacher's Response," in W. C. Born (1979), pp. 42-46.

5. For further details, see R. Richterich and J. L. Chancerel, *Identifying the Needs for Adults Learning a Foreign Language* (Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1980), and J.L. Trim, R. Richterich, J.A. van Ek, and D.A. Wilkins, *Systems Development in Adult Language Learning* (Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1980). For a short account, see W. M. Rivers and M. S. Temperley, *A Practical Guide to the Teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1978), pp. 56-57.

6. See, for instance, the study by T.J. Quinn and C. Drousiotou, "Modern Greek for Radiographers: An Exercise in Limited Communicative Competence," *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 2 (May 1979), 36-43.

7. Gail L. Nemetz Robinson, *Issues in Second Language and Cross-cultural Education: The Forest Through the Trees* (Boston: Heinle and Heinle, 1980), Chapter 10.

8. W. M. Rivers, *Teaching Foreign-Language Skills*. 2d ed. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1981), Chapter 11.

9. See, for instance, H. N. Seelye, *Teaching Culture: Strategies for Foreign Language Educators*. (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Co., 1974); R. C. Lafayette, ed., *The Cultural Revolution in Foreign Language Teaching. A Guide for Building the Modern Curriculum* (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Co., 1975); and H.L. Nostrand, "Empathy for a Second Culture: Motivation and Techniques," in G. A. Jarvis, ed., *Responding to New Realities*. ACTFL Review of Foreign Language Education, Vol. 5 (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Co., 1974).

10. Questionnaires of different types for various purposes are given and discussed in Rivers (1979), and W. M. Rivers, "The Non-Major: Tailoring the Course to Fit the Person—Not the Image," and "University of Illinois Questionnaire on Interests in Foreign Languages," in W.M. Rivers, *Speaking in Many Tongues: Essays in Foreign-Language Teaching*, Expanded 2d ed. (Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House, 1976), pp. 167-223.

Directions in Foreign Language Curriculum Development

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In developing a plan for a foreign language curriculum in the 1980s, we must take stock of the criticisms and failures of the 1970s as well as of the main achievements in this period.

Background of Criticism and Achievement

Negatively, the LT effort continues to be widely criticized for its ineffectiveness; instead of contributing to contacts across speech communities it appears to have the opposite effect. The import of the criticism of the President's Commission Report can be interpreted as threefold: (1) lack of foreign language proficiency; (2) no effective contacts with L2 communities; and (3) failure to provide an international orientation. Hence the Report's very insistent demand for much more powerful foreign language and international studies.

On the positive side, four significant trends should be noted and taken into account in foreign language curricula in the 1980s: (1) new trends in the language sciences; (2) the outcome of language learning research; (3) human relations approaches; (4) two major foreign language curriculum emphases.

(1) *New trends in the language sciences.* Developments in the language sciences during the 1970s to be taken into account in curriculum development are the widening of the scope of language studies and an increasingly social view of language and language learning. In the 1970s, linguists decisively turned their backs on the highly abstract view of language, which (for good reasons) had been advocated by Bloomfield in the 1930s and by Harris and Chomsky in the 1950s and 1960s. The continued growth of psycholinguistics, the rapid development of sociolinguistics since the mid-sixties, and the renewed interest in semantics and newer sociosemantic studies ('ethnomethodology' and 'pragmatics') have placed the language user and the use of language in a real world into the center of attention in the study of language. Hence the flurry of activity in communicative language teaching: speech acts, notions, functions, and discourse analysis.

(2) *Language learning research.* The explosion of research on L2 learning has led to a conviction that the L2 learner constructs L2 competence relatively independently and not necessarily following the graded steps of a program.[1] Language pedagogy in the past had acted as if the teacher had full control over the way the L2 learner absorbed the new language and as if all learners learned at the same time, at the same pace, and in the same way. The foreign language curriculum of the future must take into account the interlanguage research, the communication strategies of learners, and the 'acquisition' processes that go on besides the more deliberate 'learning' by formal language classroom methods. All this work leads to an emphasis on the learner's own role, perceptions, motivations, and initiative, and to a demand for a more flexible, open and individualized, more 'negotiable,' approach to the curriculum for which the ground was well prepared in the 1970s.

(3) *Human relations emphasis.* Another significant development of the 1970s, particularly in the United States, can be described as a 'human relations' emphasis. Audiolingualism and the language laboratory had encouraged an efficient but impersonal approach. The teacher's role was directive and authoritarian, and in a certain way ran counter to the prevailing educational philosophy. Individualization of instruction, group work, and humanistic techniques changed the social climate of the language class and created a new awareness of human relations as important to language teaching. In language learning the student is at first very dependent on help but can and should be gradually emancipated. The parallel between the client-physician and the student-teacher relationship became obvious. The widespread interest in certain new methods, such as Suggestopedia, the Silent Way, and Community Language Learning, reflected the concern for the key role of the human aspect in language learning and brought about the deliberate use of the interaction between student and student and student and teacher in the interest of effective language learning.

(4) *Two major curriculum emphases.* Several changes in the 1970s have resulted from the questioning of the prevailing approach to the foreign language curriculum. Here radically new developments have taken place which are likely to exercise a major influence on curriculum and materials in the future. We can detect two different strands, both of them often referred to as 'communicative' or 'functional,' although they are different in character.[2]

The first has crystallized out of the work of a number of scholars in Europe referred to in (1) above. The Threshold Level Syllabus of the Council of Europe and similar efforts, such as Wilkins' notional/functional syllabus, and the work on special purpose syllabi, illustrate this trend. The main point is that a language curriculum need not be primarily organized around a *grammatical* sequence. In many instances it has been found advantageous to base a curriculum on speech acts, functional categories, semantic notions, and discourse. Some of the most interesting efforts at renewing language teaching programs in the last ten years have arisen from this approach. It has been found to be particularly useful in adult education when learners have clearly defined specific needs and purposes for learning a language. The concept of special purpose language learning (academic, business, engineering) combined with 'language needs' analysis, and a selection of language items based on semantic and situational criteria has been developed and is increasingly applied in adult education. The thrust of the European movement in the

Council of Europe, in Britain, the Netherlands, France, and West Germany is bound to influence all types of foreign language curricula and should not be shrugged off too lightly, even if it cannot be directly applied to all types of general purpose foreign language curricula in North America.

The second approach to a communicative curriculum which has been influential can be described as the Canadian contribution to the curriculum debate of the 1970s. It is most vividly illustrated by the highly successful immersion experiments which have taken place in Canada between 1965 and 1980. As an approach to the language curriculum it is very radical, because in a way it is a rejection of a *language* curriculum per se. Instead, the emphasis is placed on the substantive (non-language) content and the experience of the language in use. There is no sequencing according to grammatical or speech act categories. In this approach language is, so to speak, 'deschooled,' as if to say 'Take care of the content, then language will take care of itself.' In reality, immersion programs have not adopted in an integral way the extreme position I have just indicated, but the underlying rationale is to place the learner into a 'real' situation in which the language is used for communication rather than to rehearse, pretend, play, or simulate.

On a more restricted scale but guided by the same principle, the Module Making Project in the OISE Modern Language Centre (Toronto, Canada) has developed certain teaching materials, called modules, which emphasize content and activities as their main focus—not language—in order to engage students in matters of real concern to them.

This nonlinguistic approach to a communicative language curriculum or, more positively expressed, an activity or experiential approach, must also be taken into consideration in future developments.

Two Directions

The different emphases of the 1970s I have sketched suggest two main directions in the development of language teaching: one which can be described as *analytical* or 'formal' is based largely on linguistic and increasingly on sociolinguistic considerations, and the other, which is *non-analytical* ('communicative' or 'experiential') is based largely on pedagogical and psychological thought. The following tabulation describes this contrasting approach to language learning. The analytical approach reflects the mainly European work on needs analysis, discourse analysis and speech act theory, and the general growth of sociolinguistics. The non-analytical one reflects mainly North American experience on immersion, content emphasis, the human relations approach and language acquisition research.

TABLE 1
Two Recent Directions in Language Teaching[3]

Analytical approach (Mainly linguistic)	**Non-analytical approach** (Mainly psychological and pedagogic)
• Based on sociolinguistic and semantic research: speech act and discourse analysis; inventories of 'notions and functions.'	• Based on psychological and pedagogic considerations ('Nurseries, streets, and classrooms'): global/integrated/ 'naturalistic'/experiential/ participant.
• Has led (a) to language needs analysis, and (b) to new language curricula: notional/ functional syllabi, languages for special purposes and other communicative syllabi, e.g., Munby, 1978.	• Has led to experiments with deschooled language learning (immersion, residence), real-life simulation in language class, focus on topic (away from language) human relations approaches in language class
• New classroom materials: e.g., OUP Focus series. New teaching techniques only to limited extent, e.g., Widdowson, 1978.	• New classroom materials, e.g., OISE modules.
• Language input controlled.	• Language input less controlled.
• No new assumptions about learner: mainly cognitive approach.	• New assumptions about learner: Emphasis on opportunities for "acquisition," e.g., Krashen, and coping techniques (communicative strategies, strategic competence, *autonomie de l'apprenant* [e.g., Holec]), hence mixed cognitive and non-cognitive approach.
• Expectation of learner motivation by conscious attention to language needs.	• Motivating learners through contact with native speakers and participating in authentic communication.

Some approaches to language curricula. A few attempts have already been made to integrate these different trends. For example, Henri Holec in France, drawing on the language learning research, individualization of instruction and human relations approaches, emphasizes in the teaching of ESL to adults *l'autonomie de l'apprenant.* The initiative for language learning is squarely placed on the learner, particularly in adult education.[4] Patrick Allen, working in the OISE Modern Language Centre, Toronto, and attempting to integrate the European linguistic and sociolinguistic approach with the experential immersion-type approach, proposes a three-level curriculum:[5]

TABLE 2:
Three levels of communicative competence
in second language education (adapted from Allen, 1980)

Levels of Communicative Competence

Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Structural	*Functional*	*Instrumental* (Experiential)
Focus on language (formal features)	Focus on language (discourse features)	Focus on the use of language
(a) Structural control	(a) Discourse control	(a) Situational or topical control
(b) Materials simplified structurally	(b) Materials simplified structurally	(b) Authentic language
(c) Mainly structural practice	(c) Mainly discourse practice	(c) Free practice

It expresses the conviction that the structural-grammatic sequence (Level 1 or S Level) must not be dismissed, even though by itself it is insufficient. Discourse analysis and speech act theory provide a new functional perspective and represent a second level (the F level of curriculum development). Both of them must, however, be integrated at a third level where the language is used instrumentally (I Level) in real-life activities. The foreign language curriculum must have all three components. Allen attributes particular importance to the F level which creates a bridge between the structural component at Level 1 and the language use at Level 3. Although the emphasis at different stages of the curriculum may be more on S or F or I, at all times the curriculum should include all three components.

In another attempt, Breen and Candlin have proposed the concept of communication as the key concept for a new approach to a language curriculum.[6] Bringing together insights from sociolinguistics, language learning research, human relations approaches, individualization and deschooled language learning, they reject the idea of lists of structures, notions or functions as the essence of a new curriculum. If the outcome of a curriculum is to be communication, then communication must pervade the 'curriculum process.' Teachers and students are participants in this process and jointly work out or 'negotiate' what is to be learned and how. "The classroom is 'artificial' only if we demand of it that which it cannot achieve – if, for example, we treat it as a rehearsal studio where 'actors' learn the lines from some pre-scripted target repertoire for a performance at some later time and place. The authenticity of the classroom lies in its dual role of observatory and laboratory during a communicative learning-teaching process."[7]

Lastly, as mentioned previously, some of us in the Modern Language Centre in Toronto (Module Making Project: Rebecca Ullmann, Martha Balchunas, and myself) have for several years worked on a very flexible modular approach to the foreign language curriculum, thinking in terms of four broad content categories – language, culture, communicative activities, general language education – supported by curriculum *guides* (not yet in existence) and relatively independent small units or modules (examples available) as the building blocks of a foreign language curriculum.[8]

Personal Comments on Recent and Current Trends

(1) The new emphases I have described seem to me to have much of value to offer to new curriculum development, although they need balancing by other developments which have been neglected (see 4 and 5 below).

(2) Communication, communicative competence as a goal, and communicative language teaching as common elements and key concepts in recent developments are productive for curriculum planning. There is a risk of a 'bandwagon' effect which has to be counteracted by conceptual clarification, a research approach, and by putting communication into a broader context.

(3) Language-learning research and non-analytical (deschooled) learning of foreign languages have rightly emphasized the initiating, organizing, and coping activities of the learners themselves; but at the same time they have led to an underrating and a subtle denigration of language teaching. Some people are too sanguine about the success of entirely deschooled language learning as *the* answer to the language learning problem.[9]

(4) Contrastive analysis and, more generally, the role of the L1 in second language acquisition have been dismissed too lightly in the 1970s. In my view, the 'L1-L2 connection' is important both as a basis for L2 learning and also for its general educational role.

(5) The cultural component in language teaching, in spite of a few individual efforts, has been inadequately handled throughout the decade. It is not sufficiently integrated into the foreign language curriculum and in recent communicative approaches has been almost entirely overlooked.

Main Points for the New Curriculum

A general principle that arises from the negative and positive trends of the past decade is that foreign language curricula must not be too narrowly conceived. That is, hammering away at language practice in isolation does not produce proficiency; in the long run it merely frustrates teachers and students and is educationally indefensible. The kind of reorientation suggested by the Council of Europe, although essential, is not sufficient as the sole basis for a new foreign language curriculum for schools or colleges, nor can a human relations approach offer an adequate answer by itself.

I am proposing a general purpose curriculum in schools and universities which may (or may not) include many special purpose curricula.[10] But we must be prepared for the fact that the language learning needs of most students at the school and university level cannot (and need not) be specified in the same detail as the language learning needs of certain groups of adult learners. The main principle for curriculum development can be described as a multiple focus. According to this conception proficiency is not pursued in isolation; it is embedded in a curriculum which has four foci:

(1) Language (L2);
(2) Culture (C2);
(3) L2/C2 communicative activities;
(4) General language education.

The important differences between this curriculum approach and previous ones lie in the fact that foci (2), (3), and (4) are not byproducts or less important aspects of the curriculum than focus (1). They are to be given the same intensive treatment as the language component. For each focus or component, separate syllabus development is needed. In this way it is intended to give the L2 curriculum greater strength, greater balance, and greater educational impact, and to obviate one of the main objections to current language curricula, triviality of content, lack of substance, lack of impact and, in addition, inadequate language proficiency. The four different syllabi making up the foreign language curriculum should not be regarded as isolated from each other; they should be correlated and thoroughly integrated into one curriculum.

General Goals and Objectives

The overall intention of a foreign language curriculum can be described as twofold: (a) to enable students to learn to communicate effectively with another speech community or communities; and (b) to enable them to generalize from this particular experience to similar contacts with other speech communities so that what has been learned in relation to L(X) has relevance for L1 and can be applied to L(Y) or L(Z) and C(Y) and C(Z) as and when the need arises.

With these goals in mind, the objectives of language courses can be expressed in terms of broad categories suggested by Bloom's taxonomies:

(1) *Proficiency* in the language as well as cultural 'proficiency';
(2) *Knowledge* about the language and the culture and society (the cognitive objective);
(3) *Attitudes and values* in relation to the language, the country, and its culture (affective learning);

(4) the ability to *transfer* and generalize the experiences with the particular language to other languages, other countries, and to a more general language and international education.

The interaction between content areas and personal objectives can be expressed in the kind of cross-tabulation that Valette made 10 years ago.[11]

TABLE 3
A Foreign Language Curriculum Model

Content	**Objectives**				**Main strategies**
	Proficiency	Knowledge	Affect	Transfer	
Language Syllabus (L2)	///	|||	|||	|||	Analytical: Study & Practice
Culture Syllabus (C2)	|||	///	|||	|||	Analytical: Study (knowledge about C2)
Communicative Activity Syllabus (L2/C2)	///	|||	|||	|||	Communicative Activities (Experiential)
General Language Education Syllabus	|||	|||	|||	///	Comparative (Crosslingual/ Crosscultural)

Key: Suggested major emphasis ///
Suggested minor emphasis |||

Teaching/Learning Strategies

As far as teaching/learning strategies are concerned, they should reflect the multiple purpose and multiple focus, and therefore offer a greater range of dimensions than a firm prescription, so as to diversify and increase the repertoire of teachers rather than to narrow it down to a specific formula.[12] I am therefore not in favor of the kind of highly prescriptive approach that was advocated by CREDIF in the 1960s; but in the same way I do not support some of the 'methods' recently advocated in some American universities, e.g., 'the Natural Approach' (Terrell) or the 'Dartmouth Method' (Rassias). Instead I view LT strategies much more in terms of a few broad dimensions:

OBSERVER	PARTICIPANT
←	→
ANALYTICAL	NON-ANALYTICAL
CROSSCULTURAL	INTRACULTURAL
←	→
CROSSLINGUAL (COMPARATIVE)	INTRALINGUAL (NON-COMPARATIVE)
←	→
TEACHER-CENTERED	STUDENT-CENTERED

Without going into detail about these different strategies in this paper, only the first one, which is built into the content of the proposed curriculum design, should be mentioned. The approach to the L2 and C2 is analytical or 'formal' in Focus 1 and 2, and it is non-analytical, global, or 'experiential' in Focus 3. Foci 1 and 2 require methods of study and practice, whereas in Focus 3 the attention is directed away from language to communication in living and real situations. Focus 4 is again analytical or can also be described as comparative in that it is intended to be an attempt to integrate second language learning into general language education in L1 and L2.

Content Areas

Focus 1: Language (L2). This is the traditional core of language instruction, although widened and reoriented in line with recent sociosemantic developments. It corresponds to what in Allen's scheme is represented by the S and F level. If this focus is only part of the curriculum activity, it must be treated with greater economy than before but Foci 2 (Culture) and 3 (Activities) provide opportunities for language use so that the total time spent on the language is not reduced. What is likely to be reduced is time on purely structural or functional study or practice.[13]

Within this component the change of emphasis from structural to functional (i.e., speech act and discourse) categories resulting from sociolinguistics and pragmatics provides the main challenge for curriculum development in the 1980s. The pioneer efforts of the Council of Europe projects and the resulting curriculum experiments form a basis for a much richer language component. It should, however, be pointed out that current notional/functional content or discourse aspects are only very partially supported by linguistic research. Moreover, many of the teaching materials and the teaching experiments incorporating these aspects have not yet been evaluated. *In short, one of the priorities of the decade should be linguistic and pedagogical research on the semantic and sociolinguistic component of the language syllabus.*

Focus 2: Culture (C2). The teaching of culture has been advocated for more than 30 years. There have been substantial individual contributions during the last two decades, particularly by Nostrand and Seelye. Nevertheless, the entire component is still inadequately integrated with the treatment of language. Recent studies in sociolinguistics, cultural anthropology, ethnography, and so on, provide a theoretical basis, but in effect the cultural content area has not been pursued systematically enough. Consequently, cultural teaching has remained unsubstantial and sporadic. The demand for 'international studies' in the President's Commission Report represents the goal of a systematic approach to the L2 community or communities within the context of foreign language instruction. Without it, foreign language study (component 1) has no reference to any country or community. It should be pointed out that many L2s, e.g., English, Spanish, or French, relate to several political entities and therefore a deliberate choice of specific L2/C2 communities can and should be made in foreign language study. Thus, in teaching in the United States, it would seem reasonable to include, besides France, francophone Canada and other francophone areas across the world in French curriculum development.

The area of what constitutes culture is poorly defined, and courses offered in universities on culture or civilization generally lack a foundation in theory or research. As long as there is such a lack of adequate research it is very difficult to develop a cultural syllabus of quality. Some improvisation is inevitable, and only gradual improvement, as the data base grows, can be expected.

Focus 3: L2/C2 communicative activities. Components 1 and 2, which have been sketched above, jointly represent the analytical or study approach to L2 and C2. They envisage the language and the culture as objective entities which can be observed and analyzed. Several of the studies and language teaching experiences of the 1970s, immersion, the human relations approach, the research on informal language learning, suggest that a study approach to a language by itself is insufficient and misleading. The learner must be exposed to the living totality of a speech community or to some of its aspects. Such exposure should not be that of an analytical observer but that of a person who becomes involved in the process of living in or in contact with that speech community, and who makes contact with individual members; hence, the demand for communicative activities and contact experiences. Living, learning, or working in the other country are the obvious ways of providing that kind of molar contact experience. However, it cannot be offered on a massive scale to every learner in a foreign language situation. Immersion and immersion-type arrangements (e.g., teaching other subjects in L2, Middlebury-type L2 houses) provide valuable substitutes. What is intended, however, as contact experience is not merely a physical movement of individuals, but a meeting of minds. Hence, emphasis on educationally valid content and subject matter of real concern to the learner is vital for this focus. A personal interest and involvement in, say, literature, drama, politics, movies, sports, engineering, and other aspects of L2, pursued in the L2 through books, newspapers, correspondence, radio, television, contact with like-minded individual members of the L2 community, can have a similar effect.

The point of this component is that it should be developed from an early stage of foreign language learning. It should not be postponed until the L2 has been learned because it is itself a way of learning the L2 through living contact with the community and culture. It is through experiences of this kind that L2 learners can acquire the communicative strategies and coping techniques which help them to 'survive' in the L2/C2 environment.

Informally, here and there, language teachers have always tried to offer opportunities for this kind of field experience to their students. However, what is suggested here is that it should form part of any regular language program and must be more systematically developed and incorporated. It requires a syllabus of its own so that at all times the learners are made aware of the language in its natural habitat and of themselves as 'foreigners' using that L2 and coming to grips with the C2. This area requires a great deal of ingenuity and invites imaginative experimentation. It is underdeveloped and in need of strengthening.

Focus 4: General language education. The three components we have described up to now focus on a particular L2 and C2 and relate a particular learner to that L2 and C2. While this may be quite sufficient for a strong curriculum, an added asset of an L2 program is the possibility of acquiring knowledge about language, culture, and society in general, and thus obtaining a deeper language, social, and international education which can enhance L1 and, furthermore, can give the L2 learner a general awareness of languages and language learning as well as of other languages and other countries. Not only can this emphasis contribute to the learner's skill in tackling the L2/C2 in question, but it also provides an educated approach to L2 speakers and bilinguals generally with whom everyone in North America comes into contact at almost every stage of life. A more deliberate approach to language questions, e.g., the question of language prejudice, or thinking about language learning, places the L2 program into the context of a general language education. It can be combined with crosscultural studies of a more general kind and it is in this way that foreign language and international studies can become an entity. Sporadic attempts to develop syllabi of this kind have already been made here and there, but much remains to be done, if this part of the L2 education is to have substance enough to strengthen the L2 program. It is perhaps the most neglected area of foreign language education.

Implementation

The proposal in this paper points to an R & D approach and experimentation on a cooperative basis involving many individuals and institutions. Fundamental long-term studies at the conceptual and descriptive levels on cultural and sociolinguistic aspects of different languages and speech communities are needed. These are best undertaken by university language and linguistics departments which are prepared to reorient their research interests in this direction.

Existing knowledge on languages and cultures needs systematic collecting in linguistic and cultural reference guides. To provide such a synthesis of information on different languages and cultures should also be of interest to language and linguistics departments or to educational linguists in faculties of education and university language centers.

Syllabus development for the different foci can best be initiated by individuals or groups acting within a school or university setting. It lends itself well to committee work; different groups or committees could work out different syllabi. The Council of Europe studies in this regard offer a useful example to follow, but it should be remembered that the Council of Europe's own scheme cannot be automatically adopted because the Council's schemes were intended for adults and not necessarily for schools or universities. Moreover, the Council of Europe schemes only cover the first of the suggested syllabi, the linguistic syllabus.

Specific topics in a given language within each of the different areas lend themselves to the development of carefully designed prototype modules. The advantage of this approach would be that in particular syllabus areas on specific topics, materials would quickly become available.

As different syllabi or parts of a syllabus are developed and tried in school systems it is important to monitor their application by regular evaluation procedures. The overall effect of an infusion of such experimentation, research, and evaluation in teaching and learning languages could be considerable.

Materials

In planning for new programs and new materials in the 1980s, we should bear in mind that the greater flexibility, the individual variations, and the learner initiative which characterize present-day thinking on the foreign language curriculum should also be reflected in the new materials. The idea of a single textbook covering the 'whole' language or a series of strictly interlocking rigid 'programs' of the type developed in the 1960s may not be suitable for the new materials to be designed in the 1980s. The kinds of developments one might look for are the following:

(1) For each syllabus (language, culture, communicative activities, and general language) a *guide* or a *series of guides* should be composed with suggestions for content, sequence and treatment;

(2) For beginners, *a relatively short all-purpose textbook* covering the different syllabi may still be an appropriate vehicle. Such a textbook should offer an introduction to essentials of the language, basic cultural information, contact activity suggestions, and general language items;

(3) Other phases should be handled by a variety of *different materials and modules* which give students and teachers flexibility and opportunity for differences in emphases. Such shorter works should include reference grammars, dictionaries, practice materials on tape and in book form, authentic documents, and modules.

Conclusion

The proposals in this paper are long-term and short-term. They build up on existing trends of development and in that sense they are of course not new. It would, however, be a fundamental error not to recognize what is specifically innovative and in parts a radical departure from current practice.

In the treatment of the language component of the foreign language curriculum in the past, we have *not* paid specific attention to speech acts and discourse, and the problem we are facing today is how best to incorporate this new and valuable aspect of sociolinguistic and semantic analysis into the foreign language curricula of the future.

In the past we have *not* systematically treated the cultural component as an equivalent to the grammar of a language, and its inclusion presents a problem which cannot be solved by good intentions alone. It requires a great deal of new and systematic study at the basic conceptual level, at the descriptive data collecting level, and in its application in the classroom.

In the past we have *not*, systematically and consistently, included communicative activities in the foreign language curriculum. Nor have we in the past made systematic efforts to explore and exploit the contribution of instruction in one language for a more general language education.

Because so much of this is a departure from current practice, it cannot be done quickly, nor can it be done by a simple formula. It requires long-term planning. But this does not mean that it could not also be of direct use in today's classroom. It is important to place it at different levels so that there is fundamental research, descriptive data collecting, experimentation with the different syllabi but also immediate work in the language classrooms here and now.

There is no reason why a reorientation of the foreign language curriculum could not occur by gradual approximation over a period of years and simultaneously make itself felt at once at different places in the educational structure. What is important is to recognize that in a renewal of the kind suggested in this paper, foreign language teachers, administrators, teacher trainers, educational researchers, as well as linguists, sociologists, and anthropologists all have a role to play. It is the interaction among them that can gradually lead to a significant improvement in foreign language curricula. But once the process has been set in motion, there is every expectation that its effects could be substantial and immediate.

NOTES

1. For a recent statement on language learning research, see H. H. Stern and Jim Cummins, "Language Teaching/Learning Research: A Canadian Perspective on Status and Directions," in June K. Phillips, ed., *Action for the 80s: A Political, Professional, and Public Program for Foreign Language Education,* ACTFL Foreign Language Education Series (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Co., 1981), pp. 195-248.

2. The new approaches to CLT were discussed by an ACTFL-sponsored conference in October 1979. The proceedings were published in a special issue of *Studies in Second Language Acquisition.*

3. I have pursued the analysis referred to in this table in a chapter on "Communicative Teaching: Toward a Synthesis," in J. Alatis, H. Altman and P. Alatis, eds., *The Second Language Classroom: Directions for the 1980s* (New York: Oxford University Press, forthcoming). The two titles referred to in this talbe are: H. Widdowson, *Language Teaching as Communication* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1978), and J. Munby, *Communicative Syllabus Design* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1978).

4. H. Holec, *Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning* (Strasbourg: Council of Europe, 1980).

5. Patrick Allen's keynote address to the Spring Conference of the Ontario Modern Language Teachers Association, OISE, Toronto, 1980 (mimeo).

6. M. P. Breen and C. Candlin "The Essentials of a Communicative Curriculum in Language Teaching," *Applied Linguistics,* 1(1980), 89-112.

7. *Ibid.*, 99.

8. See, for example, H. H. Stern, "Mammoths or Modules," *Times Educational Supplement,* October 1976 (Special inset on Modern Languages), and H. H. Stern *et al.*, *Module Making: A Study in the Development and Evaluation of Learning Materials for French as a Second Language* (Toronto: Ontario Ministry of Education, 1980).

9. This point is also made by R. Politzer, "Foreign Language Teaching and Bilingual Education: Research Implications," *Foreign Language Annals,* 13(1980), 291-97.

10. The proposals discussed in the following pages have recently been developed in cooperation with Rebecca Ullmann, a Research Associate in the OISE Modern Language Centre. They are being at present actively pursued in curriculum project work undertaken by the Centre.

11. See, for example, R. M. Valette, "Evaluation of Learning in a Second Language," in B. Bloom, J. T. Hastings and G. Madaus, eds., *Handbook on Formative and Summative Evaluation of Student Learning* (New York: McGraw Hill, 1971), pp. 817-53.

12. A good example of what is needed at this level is represented by E. D. Allen and R. M. Valette, *Classroom Techniques: Foreign Languages and English as a Second Language* (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1977).

13. Albert Valdman's suggestions of a severely curtailed language syllabus would be very helpful from this perspective. See A. Valdman and H. P. Warriner-Burke, "Major Surgery Due: Redesigning the Syllabus and Texts," *Foreign Language Annals,* 13(1980), 261-70.

The Incorporation of the Notion of Communicative Competence in the Design of the Introductory Foreign Language Course Syllabus*

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First introduced to foreign language teachers by Sandra Savignon in 1972, the term "communicative competence" has profoundly influenced second language learning in the course of the last few years, and it shows promise to lead to radical changes in the organization of curricula and on the design of teaching materials during the decade ahead. Savignon's use of the term communicative competence referred to the ability to meet daily communicative needs, to get along in the target language community. However, that term had been introduced earlier by sociolinguists and ethnographers to encompass all aspects of the relationship between language and culture and language and society.[1] Implicit in the more inclusive definition of communicative competence is an extension of the scope of linguistic analysis beyond syntax to include the organization of discourse, the relationship between the structure of the language and the functions of speaking, and the correlation between linguistic variation and social and situational factors.

Two other theoretical strands are intimately interwoven with the notion of communicative competence: the cognitive view of language acquisition and the interlanguage hypothesis. The former holds that central to the acquisition of language are mental schemata and cognitive processes. It follows from that view that foreign language learning proceeds, not by the imitation and memorization of a finite set of structural features or patterns, but by intellectual awareness of these structures and patterns linked to their utilization in appropriate communicative contexts; comprehension necessarily precedes active production. According to the interlanguage hypothesis, the foreign language learner proceeds by gradual approximation to the target language norm rather than by total control of target language features acquired in seriatim fashion. Thus, errors are not evidence of imperfect learning, but necessary intervening steps on the way to near-native mastery of the target language. These three strands—communicative competence, the cognitive view of language acquisition, and the interlanguage hypothesis—converge to define a particular pedagogical context and set of teaching objectives. To assign highest priority to the communicative use of language entails acceptance of interlanguage stages of the target language that diverge from the fully accurate native version; structural accuracy needs to be subordinated to functional efficacy and to sociolinguistic authenticity.

This cognitive/functional view of second language learning has had wide impact on the teaching of foreign languages at advanced levels, especially in the areas of syllabus design and the development of teaching materials. In Western Europe it has led to the elaboration of taxonomies focusing on semantic notions and speech acts (*The Threshold Level* and *Un Niveau seuil*) and in this country, to research on the discursive characteristics of the speech of learners of English as a second language and on interactions between learners and native speakers.[2] Since advanced learners exhibit, at the various structural levels (phonology, morphosyntax, lexicon), approximative systems that do not diverge extensively from the target language norm, the researchers' attention may be concentrated on the organization of discourse and on the relationship between linguistic form and function. However, except for sloganeering couched in vague generalities,[3] there have been few attempts to examine the implications of the new theoretical paradigm, communicative competence, the cognitive view of second language acquisition, and the interlanguage hypothesis for the formulation of curricula, the development of teaching materials, and, particularly, the design of syllabi for introductory foreign language courses.[4]

Communicative Ability as a Goal for Introductory Foreign Language Instruction

By "introductory instruction," I mean course sequences totalling about 300 hours of instruction (the effective length of the typical two-year high school and college course sequence). This foreign language course sequence does not aim to impart a functional level of proficiency in the target language. Rather, as a nuclear component of liberal arts education, its aims are broader. It serves primarily to acquaint students with the phenomenon of language and multifarious links with mind, culture, and society, and to introduce them to a culture different from that of mainstream America. Yet, to recognize the subordinate nature of the attainment of communicative ability as a goal of introductory foreign language instruction is not to defer the communicative use of the target language to more advanced levels of instruction (which few learners ever reach in the U.S.). Indeed, the study of a foreign language must include actual experience in applying structure and vocabulary to effect communication within a simulated natural context. What is needed is to define a *minimal communicative ability*, attainable within the severe time constraints of the introductory foreign language course, which nonetheless will enable the learners to negotiate certain conversational transactions with native speakers and, more importantly, which will acquaint them with the social and cultural matrix in which the foreign language is embedded. For the introductory foreign language course, communicative competence, in the inclusive sense in use among anthropologists and sociolinguists, does not represent an attainable goal. It would be more realistic to aim for a lower level of achievement in minimal communicative ability. That objective comprises, in addition to the ability to meet certain limited communicative needs (Savignon's interpretation of communicative competence), a certain level of familiarity with strategies of communication, with the rules of speaking, and with the social parameters of language variation in the target language community.

In addition to time constraints, three other factors militate against the attainment of genuine communicative competence in the foreign language classroom. First, few non-native teachers control the target language well enough to expose learners to authentic target language data containing the full array of sociolinguistic variables. Second, authentic communication is impossible in the context of the foreign language classroom. In that environment, language is diverted from its primary function, which is to relate linguistic and non-linguistic objects, and assumes metalinguistic and epilinguistic functions. Even when learners are asked to talk about the here-and-now, as is usually the case in the conversational segments of audiolingual-oriented courses, the main objective is the rehearsal of linguistic structures rather than the transmission of meaning or the expression of genuine communicative needs. Such simple protocols as *What's the weather like today?* or *What time is it?* are not directives, for students realize that a simple glance through the window or at the instructor's watch would satisfy his or her need for the putative information. Even in simulated communicative situations learners know that their responses are evaluated more for their conformity with target language structural norms than for their informational content. As A. Trévisse points out, in the classroom context learners' utterances are characterized by a two-level enunciation.[5] Underneath the message conveyed lurks an implicit request for evaluation or feedback: "Am I making myself understood?" "Do I pronounce correctly?" This accounts for the tentative, rising intonation that learners often superimpose on declaratives. Finally, since beginning and intermediate learners have no acquired target language prosody and phonology, it would be unreasonable to expect them to produce utterances at a normal speech rate. Slowness of speech and limits in the length of utterances they can produce render inappropriate the use of fast-tempo (normal) forms and they force upon the teacher the use of a sociolinguistically neutral pedagogical norm.

Elsewhere I have enumerated the inadequacies of traditional syllabus design which severely limit both the attainment of the minimal level of communicative ability I consider a central objective of introductory foreign language courses and an understanding of the functioning of language.[6] Here, I would like to proceed in a more positive vein and outline the four main features of the cognitive/functional syllabus that should underlie teaching materials for the 1980's: (1) cyclical progression; (2) notional focus; (3) discursive authenticity; (4) simplification and reduction.

Cyclical Progression

Current materials exemplify a linear syllabus couched in terms of situations and structure. Focus is placed on grammar, and individual lexical items or lexical sets depend for their introduction on the inclusion of appropriate situations or cultural topics. Features are presented in terms of monolithic blocks (e.g., determiners, adjectives, past tense, subjunctive), each feature targeted for full mastery (internalization) before another comes into focus. Very often the order in which structural features are classified reflects that of reference grammars intended for native speakers, rather than ease of acquisition by learners or contribution to the attainment of communicative ability.

Simon Belasco decried the overambitious nature of the conventional situational/structural syllabus.[7] He argued for the establishment of mastery levels, notably a distinction between passive and active mastery, and suggested that the number of features over which the students could gain active mastery represented a fraction of the total number presented. The distinction between passive and active levels of mastery also characterizes "implicit" approaches to foreign language teaching which stress the passive skills of listening comprehension and reading ability.[8]

Strictly speaking, a linear grammatical syllabus is incompatible with a situational approach, since the construction of even the most rudimentary dialogue—if it is to sound somewhat authentic—requires the introduction of a larger number of structural features than can be realistically mastered in the short period of time allotted for "internalization" of the dialogue. In the conventional situational/structural syllabus, structural complexity is reduced at the expense of authenticity by "seeding" a small set of structural features in dialogues. It is only these features which, at a given point in the course, are targeted for in-depth control. But even so, the structural dosage is too heavy, and since the necessary conditions for the use of the targeted structures in simulated communicative contexts are not provided, learners are able to produce these accurately only in the course of manipulative activities, such as repetition of dialogues or pattern drill on sentences drawn from the dialogue.

A solution to these problems resides in the adoption of the cyclical or spiral syllabus.[9] That approach requires a precise definition of mastery levels at each phase of the instructional program: which features will be targeted for recognition, which for passive control in speech or in written form, which for limited productive control (as in drills or written exercises), which for use in communicative activities. It also requires a delicate structural analysis wherein the monolithic features of conventional syllabi are broken down into constituent subfeatures. For example, the French *passé composé* may be viewed as comprising at least seven components:

(a)	p.c. with *avoir*: -er (productive verbs)	il a dansé
(b)	p.c. with *avoir:* other regular verb classes (*ir, -ir/-iss, -re*)	il a choisi il a vendu
(c)	p.c. with *avoir:* -ir regular verbs	il a ouvert il a fait
(d)	p.c. with *avoir:* use with clitic pronouns	il l'a mangé il lui a dit
(e)	p.c. with *être,* intransitive verbs only	il est allé
(f)	*être* versus *avoir* in transitive verbs	il est monté il a monté
(g)	p.c. with pronominal verbs	il s'est lavé

In a cyclical approach features are fully mastered, i.e., used appropriately and accurately in the context of simulated communicative activities, only after several successive passes. Assume grammatical items *a, b, c, d, e,* subfeatures of a feature X. On the first cycle, the features *a, b,* and *c* are presented for passive mastery. On the second level, *a* and *b* become targeted for active control and features *c* and *d* are presented passively. On the third cycle, *a* is used in communicative contexts so that its low-level activities components become fully automated;[10] *b* continues to be used productively but is not yet fully internalized; *c* is targeted for productive mastery and *e* is introduced for passive recognition. Each successive cycle serves to reinforce active control of previously presented subfeatures and to integrate them with newly introduced related features. Of course, it is to be anticipated that at early cycles, learners will deviate from the target language norm, that is, they will be using an interlanguage. But each successive interlanguage stage will move closer to the norm, and the learners will have acquired at least partial mastery of a larger number of structural features.

A cyclical approach provides a convenient framework for the refreshing or upgrading of eroded skill. It also permits diversifying the syllabus to incorporate pragmatic and discursive (rhetorical) considerations in addition to conventional structural features. Patrick Allen proposes a tri-dimensional syllabus identifying three stages: structural (focusing on language structure); rhetorical (focusing on discourse features and the construction of connected texts); pragmatic (focusing on the communicative use of language in situation).[11] When implemented cyclically, this model allows focus on a given orientation (structural, discursive, or pragmatic) at each stage of instruction, with the possibility of review or restoration of forgotten or eroded material pertaining to one of the two other orientations not in focus. For example, in the third semester of a four-semester college course where the focus would be placed on rhetorical devices and where students would receive training in organizing conversational discourse and in composing written texts, structural features presented at the two previous levels would be recycled and automated.

Notional Focus

We have seen that the conventional syllabus reflects a predominant concern for linguistic structure, especially phonology and morphosyntax. Learners are introduced only to the propositional meaning of sentences, and they are not made aware of the lack of isomorphism between the structure of sentences and their discursive and pragmatic functions. For example, the learner who is taught that interrogative structures serve to elicit information would be surprised to discover that in (1) below the interrogative sentence, bearing stress on *are*, is not intended by the speaker to elicit a yes/no answer, but rather to express surprise, incredulity, disbelief, and the like:[12]

(1) Speaker A: I'm studying Chinese this year.
Speaker B: *Are* you studying Chinese this year?

And the sentence

(2) She said she would leave

can, depending on its discursive environment and the situational context, express a variety of speech acts: promise, threat, warning, to name just a few of the possibilities. The cognitive/functional syllabus, then, must relate structural features to speech function. On the one hand, the learner must be introduced to the fact that, in the use of language for communicative purposes, the same grammatical feature may serve several different pragmatic functions and that, on the other hand, given speech acts may be expressed by a variety of linguistic features. The choice of grammatical structure or vocabulary depends on the circumstances surrounding the speech act: the relationship between the interlocutors, previous discourse, etc. For example, a directive by a teacher to close a door would, in a class in France, be expressed by the following utterances (some indication of the situational context is provided in parentheses):

(3a) Puis-je vous demander de bien vouloir fermer la porte? (extra-polite, no doubt addressed to a superior or equal)
(3b) Voulez-vous fermez la porte, s'il vous plaît? (polite, addressed to student)
(3c) Qui voudrait bien fermer la porte? (more indirect than 3b; the actor is not designated)
(3d) Je crains les courants d'air. (more indirect than 3c)
(3e) Alors, on ne ferme pas les portes! (ironic; the addressee is being reminded that he or she has violated a rule of etiquette)

Of course, at early stages of instruction, attempts would be made to select a set of canonical correspondences between structural features and speech acts, e. g., imperative forms for directives (*Fermez la porte*); the modal "to wish" in interrogative sentences for polite requests (*Voulez-vous fermer la porte*), with the formula *s'il vous plaît* added for good measure. The pragmatic value of alternative linguistic means could be presented for passive recognition, the learner being trained to relate situational features (here viewed broadly to include social relationships between participants in speech interactions) and linguistic choices.

Rather than formulating syllabi in terms of discrete grammatical features (determiners, gender agreement, the progressive tense, relative clauses), one should provide the learner with linguistic means for the expression of semantic categories: time (past, present, future), quantification, possession, modality (obligation, capability). For instance, instead of teaching the French future tense, the pedagogical objectives would be to enable the learner to express the concept of futurity. In French that may be accomplished by the use of present indicative forms accompanied by time adverbials referring to futurity (*il part demain*), by an analytic construction composed of the present of the verb "to go" (*aller*) and the infinitive of the verb in question (*il va partir demain*), or the future tense (*il partira demain*). The choice from among these three structural devices depends on the ultimate course objectives. In an introductory course, the choice would fall first on the use of present indicative forms and appropriate adverbs (at that stage, a lexical device), and at a later stage, on the analytic construction. The introduction of the synthetic future tense—a relatively complex paradigm requiring for many verbs the memorization of a future stem distinct from the more frequently occurring forms based on the present stem—may be deferred without limiting the learner's ability to express tense relations.

Discursive Authenticity

The signal contribution of structural linguistics in the 1950s and the 1960s resided in delineating the distinction between written and spoken language and, particularly for languages such as English and French, in identifying features of the spoken language reflected imperfectly by spelling. Necessarily, this innovation resulted in the incorporation in teaching materials of more authentic materials of more authentic speech samples. But since structuralists (and the generative-transformationalists that followed them) limited their observations to isolated sentences, they failed to describe the features of spoken discourse. Together with the structural seeding described in Cyclical Progressions, above, lack of attention to spoken discursive devices resulted in stilted and unauthentic dialogues. It also failed to focus the learner's attention on such crucial discourse features as conversation openers and closes, back-channel cues that control the behavior of one's interlocutor, and devices that provide feedback on one's own performance and permit repair of situationally or linguistically defective utterances.

For example, at the intermediate level at least, we need to include in scope and sequence rhetorical devices like extraposition whose function is to underscore a particular proposition argument functioning as focus or topic:[13]

(4) I want the red pencil (not the blue one).
vs. It's the red pencil that I want.
(5) I don't need this kind of trouble.
vs. This kind of trouble, I don't need.

The stilted nature of connected speech lacking such rhetorical devices is particularly striking in French where the absence of phonologically distinctive stress requires the use of syntactic devices to effect topicalization and focalization. In traditional syllabi, no link is drawn between pronominalization and these two discourse functions, and learners are led through sterile manipulative substitution drills of the type:

(6) J'ai de l'argent. J'en ai.
J'ai des amis. J'en ai.
Je prends du lait... J'en prends.

In fact, pronominalization is the main structural feature involved in focalization and topicalization in French, since the impossibility of placing stress on a noun phrase constituent requires copying the semantic and syntactic features of the focalized or topicalized element on a pronominal. The latter may occur as a separate preposed or post-posed phonological phrase:

(7) Tu as *des robes.*
(7a) Tu *en* as des robes!
(8) *Tu* as des robes.
(8a) Toi, tu as des robes (moi, je n'en ai pas).
(9) *Tu* as *de la veine.*
(9a) *Toi,* tu *en* as de la veine.
(9b) Tu *en* as de la veine, *toi.*

Undoubtedly, from a communicative competence perspective (here I underscore again the difference between genuine communicative competence, which is outside of the scope of the introductory course, and minimal communicative ability, which does constitute a legitimate and realistic goal), sentences 9a and 9b are not equivalent, but since little attention has been paid to the rhetorical value of pronominalization in French, available descriptions lack the necessary precision that would enable us to offer some generalization about the difference between preposition or post-position of the pronominal copy. The use of disjunctive pronouns in discourse, as for example to focalize the actor:

(10) Il est canadien. *Moi,* je suis americain

clearly is a feature that should be introduced in early stages of the teaching of French. In addition to the greater authenticity they contribute to sample texts, disjunctive pronouns reduce the length of phonological phrases:

(11) Mes amis, *eux,* ils travaillent jamais.
(11b) Mes amis ne travaillent jamais.

Version (11a) is easier to produce since it consists of three phonological phrases, whereas (11b) contains only one.

Also conspicuously absent from present situational/structural syllabi are sentence fragments that fulfill a variety of tasks linked to the expressive functions of language, as well as those linked to conversational strategies, e.g., pauses, turn-taking, openers, closes. Despite the scarcity of information in this domain, it is possible to draw up tentative inventories linking such features to expressive meaning or conversational management, as is the case for the following examples from French:[14]

(12)	*Bof!* Il viendra quand même.	*Indifference*
(13)	*Bon, alors, écoutez,* il faut quand même qu'on se décide!	*Attention getting* *Turn-seizing* *Turn-holding*
(14)	Elle est chouette ma robe, *hein!*	*Confirmation*

Simplification and Reduction

The observation of interlinguistic systems (error analysis) reveals that errors constitute an integral step in the acquisition of the target language. Faced with the ubiquity of errors, specialists in foreign language instruction may adopt one of three attitudes: (1) they may attempt to eliminate errors by limiting classroom exercises to repetitive activities with low risk of producing deviant utterances; (2) they may accept any error provided that the message is transmitted; (3) they may intervene deliberately to orient the learner's interlanguage toward the target language by way of an autonomous standard, the pedagogical norm. It is this latter option that I recommend.

Some applied linguists refuse any modification of the input data on the grounds that this would tend to impoverish it. They claim that this would make it impossible for the learner to acquire the full range of variation required to develop communicative competence. But we have seen that, given the special nature of the classroom context, communicative competence is unattainable anyway. Within the constraints of the introductory foreign language course, learners at best can acquire a minimal level of communicative ability in the target language, provided they use a neutralized classroom version of it, the pedagogical norm. Underlying the pedagogical norm we have in mind is N.V. George's notion of "little language:"

> *...(a language) within which the learner can take the initiative without producing too many errors. For wide coverage of language needs with minimum error production, each item in the little language should be psychologically justified, and should be easy to pronounce and to spell, morphological features should be regular, and the items should enter into predictable syntactical relationships.*[15]

It is not clear whether George would go so far as to introduce in the "little language" features that deviate from the target language or whether, instead, he would limit his intervention to judicious selection from actually occurring features. Jean-René Ladmiral does opt for the former alternative.[16] He has devised an approximative form of German, termed *l'Allemand-Zéro,* from which are absent features, such as some case endings and gender agreement, that are considered redundant in the sense that they do not contribute to the expression of underlying semantic categories.

The concept of "little language" and of a pedagogical norm that deviates markedly from the foreign language evokes pidginized varieties. These are forms of natural languages exhibiting apparent simplifications in structure and reductions of vocabulary that are used for limited functions in language contact situations.[17] The difference between a pidgin and a pedagogical norm is that the latter is constantly evolving toward the target language norm. Indeed, unlike the traditional adherence to a highly elaborated target language norm, the approach advocated here entails a dynamic norm. At early stages of instruction, radical simplifications and reductions are introduced—or at least tolerated—in the learner's output. As the learner progresses, the pedagogical norm is gradually complexified in the direction of the target language norm. Below, I list general principles that may guide simplification and reduction of input data in the context of beginning and intermediate foreign language instruction.

(a) *Lexical reduction.* Attempts at lexical reduction abound, but they have focused on the establishment of parsimonious lexicons on the basis of such criteria as frequency, availability, lexical valence, and utility. More stress should be placed on the introduction at early stages of instruction of polyvalent lexical items such as *truc* (stuff, thing), *type* (guy), etc.

(b) *Use of analytical forms.* Pidginized varieties are characterized by the substitution of constructions made up of function words combined for inflected forms. I have mentioned earlier the choice in French of the so-called immediate future consisting of *aller* plus infinitive instead of the highly complex future tense. Such a choice results in a considerable reduction in the number of forms the learner must manipulate.

(c) *Invariance of form.* Morphophonemic alternations greatly increase the number of forms learners must memorize and render less direct the mapping of semantic notions. For example, in the teaching of Spanish *sinalefa* (obligatory deletion of successive vowels across word boundaries, e.g., *¿Donde es la embajada?* /dondes lembajada/), contracted forms could be eliminated in profit of full forms with little loss of authenticity. In French optional liaison (e.g., *ils sont ici*) could be eliminated; this would limit liaison to a small set of forms: pronouns, determiners, and pre-nominal adjectives where it is obligatory.[18]

(d) *Elimination of redundancy.* In the final analysis, the attitude that teachers adopt toward errors rests on their conception of the nature of grammar and its role in language functioning. Underlying puristic attitudes one finds the belief that every morphosyntactic feature corresponds to a choice at the deep semantic level. In fact, in addition to contributing to the linearization of utterances, grammatical features serve as much to underscore and individualize sentence constituents as to express semantic categories. Many features, such as gender and number agreement, are simply arbitrary conventions whose contribution to the organization of utterances and the expression of meaning prove difficult to establish. On the other hand, native speakers might be particularly sensitive to foreign learners' failure to respect linguistic conventions. The learners might be looked down upon by native speakers because of errors they make, although the message they are expressing is clear. If such were to be the case, this would severely restrict the types of elimination that could be effected in redundant features.

Simplification of the transformation apparatus. While, as we have seen in syntactic permutations play a central role in expressing differences of focus and other rhetorical nuances, they could be reduced at early stages of instruction. In English yes/no questions, the use of inversion as opposed to normal declarative order signifies a low level of presupposition.[19] In (15):

(15) Are you leaving tonight?

the speaker has no previous knowledge of his interlocutor's intentions, and the utterance functions as the speech act "query." We would reasonably expect it to be followed by a reply containing yes or no. But in (16):

(16) Speaker A – I'm leaving tonight.
Speaker B – You're leaving tonight?

Speaker B is not uttering a query. For Speaker A has already provided the information. As was the case for (1) above, the utterance expresses some affect (surprise, etc.) or it may assume a discursive function (acknowledgement, etc.). In English, yes/no questions showing the normal declarative order do not necessarily elicit a simple yes/no answer but, rather, they request confirmation or express affect. From the point of view of full communicative competence, the use of inversion questions would lead to more authentic speech samples since they are neutral from a discursive or a pragmatic point of view. Yet, at early stages of instruction, one might opt to violate pragmatic appropriateness in the interest of facilitating the formulation of both yes/no and constituent (wh-) questions on the part of learners. A syllabus in which such reduction in discursive and pragmatic complexity underlies a beginning college French course. In these materials a stigmatized interrogative structure:

(17) Où tu vas?

is introduced instead of more acceptable variants:

(17b) Où est-ce que tu vas?
(17c) Où vas-tu?

because it has proven to be more readily learnable by beginning American learners.[21] At later stages of the introductory course, the structure underlying (17a) is replaced in speech by that underlying (17b) and by that underlying (17c) in written discourse.

Conclusion

In this paper I have suggested that communicative competence, in the technical sense of the term, represents an unattainable and unrealistic goal for introductory-level foreign language courses. Instead, in the course of the next decade, we must set our sights lower and aim at the acquisition on the part of foreign language learners of Minimal Communicative Ability, defined as a modest level of capacity to engage in simulated communicative interactions. Minimum communicative ability also includes an awareness of the social correlates of language variation and of the complex, non-isomorphic relationship between linguistic forms and the uses to which they are put in discourse.

On the one hand, we need to broaden the current situational/structural syllabus to include rhetorical devices and speech acts. Just as we isolate discrete phonological, grammatical, and lexical features for explicit treatment, we need to identify specific rhetorical and pragmatic devices. On the other hand, this expansion needs to be counterbalanced by reduction in the scope and complexity of structural features. More importantly, we need to devise a new basis for syllabus design according to which all three types of units (structural, rhetorical, and pragmatic) need to be harmoniously integrated. One promising direction lies in cyclical models for syllabus design. Concomitant with these modifications in scope and sequence is the adoption of a more tolerant view of learner errors. While communicative effectiveness still requires, in addition to appropriateness of use, accuracy of linguistic form, minimal communicative ability can only be achieved by beginning and intermediate learners if severe constraints on structural accuracy and well formedness are lifted. In other words, in communicative activities, learners should be allowed to use an interlanguage. However, this interlanguage differs from the pidginized forms that emerge in situations of language contact in that it is not static but, instead, evolves toward the target language norm.

In concluding, I should like to underscore the need to undertake research in three directions which might inform the syllabus overhaul I am proposing:

(1) Investigation of the nature of fossilization in the acquisition of linguistic structures and communicative strategies – is it the case, for example, that if learners are allowed to use deviant structures at early levels, their development toward the target language norm will be blocked?
(2) The role of control in foreign language learning – as opposed to the *acquisition* of a second language under natural conditions (free-learning), the *learning* of a foreign language under formal circumstances involves the operation of conscious processes. In learning, should one distinguish implicit and explicit knowledge, and how do these two types of knowledge determine the course of interlinguistic development?
(3) The factors that determine the perception and evaluation of errors on the part of native judges – What are the factors that affect native speakers' normative judgments: age, socioeconomic level, sex, existence of stereotypic views for certain groups of foreigners?

NOTES

*I would like to acknowledge with gratitude comments and suggestions made on this draft by Sally Sieloff Magnan, University of Wisconsin-Madison, and Diane Picard, Université Laval.

1. Dell Hymes, "On Communicative Competence," *Foundation in Sociolinguistics* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1974).

2. Evelyn Hatch, "Apply with Caution," *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 2(1978), 123-43.

3. Linda L. Harlow, "An Alternative to Structurally Oriented Textbooks," *Foreign Language Annals*, 11(1978), 559-63; Linda L. Harlow, W. Flint Smith, and Alan Garfinkel, "Student-Perceived Communication Needs: Infrastructure of the Functional/Notional Syllabus," *Foreign Language Annals*, 13(1980), 11-22.

4. I have borrowed from Corder (1973) the term "syllabus" to refer to the selection and ordering of content units in foreign language instruction; it is nearly synonymous with the usual American label "scope and sequence."

5. Anne Trévisse, "Spécificité de l'énonciation didactique dans l'apprentissage de l'anglais par des étudiants francophones," *Encrages*, 1 (Special issue, Fall 1979), 44-52.

6. Albert Valdman, "Communicative Use of Language and Syllabus Design," *Foreign Language Annals*, 11(1978), 567-78; "Communicative Ability and Global Foreign Language Course Syllabus Design," *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 3(1980), 81-96; Albert Valdman and Helen P. Warriner-Burke, "Major Surgery Due: Redesigning the Syllabus and Texts," *Foreign Language Annals*, 13(1980), 261-70.

7. Simon Belasco, "Nucleation and the Audio-Lingual Approach," *The Modern Language Journal*, 49(1965), 82-91; "The Relation of Linguistic Analysis to Foreign Language Teaching," in Gaylord Todd, ed., *Current Issues in Teaching French*, (Philadelphia, PA: The Center for Curriculum Development, 1972), pp. 1-28.

8. J.K. Swaffar and M.S. Woodruff, "Language for Comprehension: Focus on Reading: A Report on the University of Texas German Program," *The Modern Language Journal*, 62(1978), 27-32; Tracy D. Terrell, "A Natural Approach to Second Language Acquisition and Learning," *The Modern Language Journal*, 61(1977), 325-37.

9. S. Pit Corder, *Introducing Applied Linguistics* (Hammondsworth, England: Penguin Books, 1973).

10. W.J.M. Levelt, "Skill Theory and Language Teaching," *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 1(1977), 53-70.

11. J.P.B. Allen, "A Three-Level Curriculum Model for Language Education," Keynote address given at the annual meeting of the Ontario Modern Language Teachers' Association, Toronto, 1980.

12. Sue Vander Brook, Karen Schlue, and Cherry Campbell, "Discourse and Second Language Acquisition of Yes/No Questions," in Diane Larsen-Freeman, ed., *Discourse Analysis in Second Language Research* (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1972), pp. 56-74.

13. S. Pit Corder, *op. cit.*

14. Note that in (11a) the redundant negative particle *ne* is deleted; a characteristic feature of spontaneous-style Standard French, this feature is more compatible with the use of the pronominal copy than the careful-style insertion of *ne* in (11b). For a more detailed discussion of a use of conversational management devices, see Judith E. Frommer and Wayne Ishikawa, "Alors...euh...on parle français," *French Review*, 52(1980), 501-06.

15. H.V. George, *Common Errors in Language Learning* (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1972).

16. Jean-René Ladmiral,"Une interlangue interlinguistique: l'Allemand-zéro," *Champs Educatifs*, 1 (Acquisition d'une langue étrangère, 1979), 92-101.

17. Most pidginized varieties of language that emerge from a contact situation are evanescent. Some become stabilized and serve as rudimentary vehicular languages, e.g., lingua franca or Melanesian Pidgin English (Tok Pisin). My suggestion that we allow students to communicate at a minimal level with the use of an interlanguage should not be construed as a proposal for the creation of a classroom pidgin that would remain unchanged throughout the student's period of study.

18. Albert Valdman, "Language Variation and the Teaching of French," in Gaylord Todd, ed., *Current Issues in the Teaching of French* (Philadelphia, PA: The Center for Curriculum Development, Inc., 1972), pp. 87-107.

19. Vander Brook *et al.*, *op. cit.*

20. Albert Valdman, *Langue et culture: A Basic Course in French* (New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1975).

21. Albert Valdman, "Communicative Ability and Global Foreign Language Course Syllabus Design," *op. cit.*

Curriculum and Materials Development: A Jeremiad on the Past – A Standard for the Eighties

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I

It has become fashionable in this age of burgeoning technological development to marvel at the knowledge explosion that the modern mind has wrought. In the field of professional education alone, huge computer banks are required to keep track of our research; scholarly journals proliferate at an astonishing rate to document the expanding production of knowledge; and professional conferences grow both in number and size to disseminate our multiplying discoveries and ideas. Yet despite these achievements, it seems that the quality of our lives in general, and of our schools in particular, does not seem to be improving, and indeed (according to some observers) may even be deteriorating.[1]

But is there any hard evidence to support the disquieting feeling that education has not improved very much despite our ever-increasing knowledge and the infusion of billions of dollars to support innovative curriculum and materials development? I think there is at least some. The National Science Foundation recently sponsored several studies intended to determine the status of science, mathematics, and social studies education after two decades of improvement efforts at the national, state, and local levels.[2] The investigators' conclusions suggest that by and large these subjects are taught in substantially the same way that they were twenty years ago, and that notwithstanding all of the excitement generated by "inquiry approach," "new math," "multicultural curriculum," and the rest, students' fundamental experience in school has remained relatively unchanged.

In another study – a long-term assessment of four major federal programs designed to promote innovation and change – the Rand Corporation reports that over the long run, innovation and change were negligible.[3] Their findings, Rand concludes, "cast serious doubt on the efficacy of providing seed money to promote educational reform."

What, then, seems to be the trouble? Why is it that our furious research activity and our substantially increased store of knowledge are of so little consequence in practice, even when backed by billions of dollars of federal funding? The answer, at least in part, must surely lie in our confusion of "knowledge" with "information." What we have witnessed in recent years, it seems to me, is not a knowledge explosion at all, but rather an information explosion. The technology of modern information storage and retrieval puts at our disposal more information than ever before has been available to us. We are, figuratively speaking, drowning in information.

But information in itself is quite meaningless – indeed, literally useless. (Ironically, many of our students have made this point rather forcefully in recent years when complaining about the quality of their curricula.) Bare information is merely an agglomeration of facts, perceptions, ideas, and concepts, indiscriminately heaped into a colossal blur. What we need to make sense of it all is a pair of goggles – to borrow McLuhan's metaphor – to give us perspective, to tell us what is important, what is peripheral, what is irrelevant, and indeed, what is sheer nonsense. Knowledge is not over there in the pile of information; it is here, in the knower, whose goggles create meaning (and, it is hoped, wisdom) by providing a framework, a theory, a *Weltanschauung*.

One pair of goggles, however, is not necessarily as good as another; some prescriptions interpret information better than others, and we need to choose our goggles very carefully to ensure we are getting the best pair currently available. Making this choice, I believe, is by far our most serious challenge of the eighties.

II

For a long time it was assumed that teachers, administrators, and other professionals developed the curriculum using rational/scientific procedures in the context of cooperative group planning. Curriculum development was almost universally considered a professional, technical, value-free endeavor. We have gradually come to recognize that that conception of curriculum development is naive – that curriculum development is actually a policy-making activity, value-ridden from top to bottom, and fundamentally a political process.[4] Indeed, we have learned that when curriculum change or innovation has occurred, its sources have rested largely outside the education profession and even outside the local community. For example, aggressive political activism on the part of groups such as the NAACP and NOW has resulted in substantive revisions of basal readers and American history texts.[5] Today, a broad array of ethnic, racial, and social-class characters people the basals that were once the exclusive preserve of Dick and Jane; and women and minorities, once conspicuous by their absence from American history texts, play more prominent roles in the shaping of the American nation.

Similar examples of the influence of political action are not hard to come by. Intensive lobbying in Washington by the Council for Exceptional Children has been instrumental not only in obtaining categorical funding for the education of handicapped children, it has fostered enactment of Public Law 94-142 – the so-called Mainstreaming Law – that has changed special education curricula and their mode of delivery. Likewise, programs in bilingual education have been effectively promoted and obtained by the National Congress of Hispanic-American Citizens. Of particular interest for us are the lobbying efforts of the foreign language community on behalf of foreign language education and its personnel. As many of us are aware, this group's political sensitivity is far from inconsiderable, and its activities suggest that it is learning the lesson that the development of curriculum policy is indeed a political process.

Not surprisingly, recent initiatives to promote curriculum development in foreign language education have relied heavily on the leverage provided by the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies established by executive order in 1978. Less than a month after the first meeting of the Commission, ACTFL sent to the President, Vice President, and Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare "An ACTFL Resolution" calling for "a national policy to preserve, develop, and strengthen second language education...." What that policy should entail is unequivocally set out in a list of twelve "Priorities for Action" – Recommendations to the President's Commission issued by ACTFL in concert with the Modern Language Association and the Center for Applied Linguistics with the endorsement of the Joint National Committee for Languages, a consortium of language education organizations. (The very existence of these alliances, to say nothing of the recent liaison with the National Council for the Social Studies, is a sign of some political sophistication.) Each of the twelve recommendations in this document calls for "funding" – sometimes at rather signficant levels. Indeed, one is struck by the frequency with which the terms "funding" and "funded" appear, not only in connection with curriculum improvement and model-program development, but in the implementation of a "National Public Awareness Program" involving the National Advertising Council, and the "Establishment of a Congressional Liaison Office" to maintain a close relationship with Congress and pertinent administrative agencies. The character and, indeed, the audacity of such recommendations in response to the President's Commission, together with the establishment of a Washington office, the advocacy of "public relations" campaigns, and other such initiatives all suggest that foreign language education not only is politically aware, but is actively engaged in the political management of curriculum development.

III

If general curriculum policy is dominated by political forces external to education, curriculum and materials development within the profession seems to be captivated by a phenomenon perhaps best characterized as *curriculum chic.* Americans have always placed a high value on change, on what is new, on what is the latest fashion, and the market-place has always encouraged and exploited this tendency. Tape decks, curlers, herbals, disco, Jordache, and preppy all convince America that *joie de vivre* comes in a trendy package.

One does not have to spend very much time in education to learn that things are no different in academe. Exciting new products are constantly being developed and marketed: mastery learning, values clarification, individually prescribed instruction, career education, computer-assisted instruction, multicultural curriculum, humanistic education, minimum competency standards, and on and on. The labels on the package, unfortunately, are often little more than trade names for the latest curricular snake-oil, and a look inside usually reveals the contents to consist mainly of a semi-coherent mélange of the current educational cant. Everyone has a favorite innovation, and the vociferous evangelical fervor of each product's partisans produces a great deal of questionable scholarly debate. It is probably no exaggeration to say that the phenomenon of curriculum chic in the past thirty years has produced (as Professor Harry Broudy terms it) "a Babel of discussion and a chaos of practice."

It is ironic that the enormous success of curriculum innovation in the academic market-place has been so little matched in the schools. But that really should not surprise us when we consider that the education industry (of which we are an integral part) is an important segment of a commercial society, whose interests are best served when consumers, emptied of reason and all ideals save material self-interest, celebrate the great national potlatch in a mindless frenzy of buying. Once convinced that a Buick is *really* something to believe in, it seems not unnatural to market one's favorite curriculum innovation on the same basis.

The evidence of the past thirty years, in fact, suggests that curriculum and materials development increasingly has been captivated by the market-place mentality of American culture. If this seems too harsh a judgment, consider the following:

- Professors capitalizing on the new mania for "Basics" have become experts on minimum competency testing and hire out as consultants to McGraw Hill, SRA, and other publishers vying for domination in a burgeoning standardized test market.
- Grantsmanship has become a way of life for numerous specialists in educational innovation. Aside from the more obvious benefits accruing from federal and other funding, grants lend enormous status to trendy "innovations" and "innovators." In short, they may help to legitimize and sell the product.[6]
- Grantsmanship publications and workshops find hugely lucrative markets among public school personnel and college faculty members eager to lay hands on millions in federal, state, and private foundation grants.

- Publishers, with their antennae finely tuned to the latest in curriculum chic, flood the market with texts, tapes, films, and other assorted paraphernalia directed at what's new in curriculum. These materials, of course, are prepared by educationists who have "specialized" in a particular innovation.
- Specialized professional organizations multiply to keep pace with the introduction of each new curriculum innovation. Such organizations provide expanding opportunities for the publication of articles, the presentation of papers, and not least important, election to the offices and editorships that the new organizations create.

Examples of curriculum chic and its commercial success could be expanded *ad nauseum.* To be scrupulously fair, however, it should be noted that a number of these fashionable curriculum bandwagons began as sophisticated and theoretically coherent curriculum proposals. In the early decades of this century, for example, John Dewey developed a theory of education that was provocative, profound, and sophisticated. The poor man watched with dismay as professional educators in the 30s reduced his thought to a revoltingly superficial caricature. The tragedy is that even today the abominations of the Progressive Education movement are ascribed to Dewey.

Since the 1930s, professionals in education have dealt similarly with a variety of complex and significant curriculum concepts by creating a series of chic educational crazes – non-grading, discovery learning, and aesthetic education, to name but a few. It is unfortunate, but nevertheless true, that large segments of the education profession are prone to trivialize important concepts, package the result under an attractive trade name, and market the new product with all the fanfare and extravagant claims of a commercial media blitz. The net result of this furious activity? Researchers, professors of education, state department officials, workshop directors, conference managers, evaluators, inservice coordinators, consultants, and other assorted experts have been given a lot of new business financed mainly with public money, while the educational experience of students in the schools (the ultimate curriculum) has changed very little, and in many cases has even deteriorated.

IV

The profession's conduct of curriculum and materials development in the recent past has been little short of a national disgrace. Its confusion of minutiae with knowledge represents an ironic perversion of what education is supposed to be about, and good intentions notwithstanding, has resulted mainly in a sound and fury signifying nothing. The revelation that curriculum policy-making is a political process has turned educators into a pack of lobbyists whose new infatuation does as much to undermine the integrity of the educational enterprise as it does to further their special curricular interests. As for curriculum chic, Anthony Oettinger perhaps, has said it best: "The problems of education are too complex for amateurish panaceas, too serious to be clouded by semantic perversion, truthful deceit and, ultimately, self-delusion."[7]

Taken together, these trends suggest that participants tend to view the process of curriculum development in terms of that powerful American value-configuration that I have called the market-place mentality. Reality is interpreted through a pair of goggles—if I may return to that metaphor—that highlights production, sales, novelty, fashion, quantity, competition, and yes, profit. How far this pair of goggles has taken the profession is reflected in a book released last March by a highly respected educational publisher.[8] Its title: *Achieving Optimal Enrollments and Tuition Revenues: A Guide to Modern Methods of Market Research, Student Recruitment, and Institutional Pricing*. One cringes to consider what this means for curriculum, but the trend is not to be denied.

The villain of this scenario is not a corps of avaricious academics bent on mining the curricular market place, but rather the uncritical response. The evidence of modern psychology, social psychology, sociology, and anthropology suggests that in all social arenas latent agendas prevail, and actors play out their roles governed by ideas that are largely unexamined and by dispositions and values that often are totally unconscious. So deeply are we caught up in the furious pace of our professional lives that more than likely we are not even aware of the seduction that has taken place. Success, it is said, is its own reward.

But education is not a business, and it is not politics. Education is a moral enterprise with its own set of values, its own set of goggles. And before it is too late, we need desperately as a profession to assess the degree to which our vision of what we are about is being distorted by a set of goggles that interprets reality principally in terms of popular trends and American market-place values. To fail in this is tantamount to selling our educational souls for a mess of pottage.

I noted earlier that the most serious challenge of the 80s is choosing the best pair of goggles available. Such a task, unfortunately, is much more difficult than it might first appear because the best pair of goggles rarely seems so on the first, or even subsequent tries. The reason is that they provide the wearer with the broadest possible perspective on reality, an interpretation, of necessity, that is the most complex, and which, therefore, may be extremely discomfiting.

Generally speaking, most of us are quite at ease with a pair of goggles that presents us with a simple, familiar version of experience. Frequently, such a version is partly the result of specialization. Specialization, of course, is indispensable in contemporary society, and for the best knowledge in a given field, we must (and should) rely on specialists. Yet, in certain ways specialization can result in parochialism and patronizing attitudes toward outsiders. Such consequences are inevitable, however, only when individuals think of themselves *au fond* as specialists rather than as generalists (read: liberally educated persons) with a specialty.

The goggles yielding the broadest, most complex interpretation of reality also yields the truest standard, not only for judging foreign language curriculum and materials development, but for assessing all experience. That is why I like to call them the goggles of the liberally educated mind, and why I think they have been advocated with renewed enthusiasm in recent years.[9]

What kind of interpretation do these goggles provide? The literature on the subject is extensive[10] and deserves the closest study; here, however, only the highlights are possible.

The goggles of liberal education show us the world less colored by our unconscious needs and wishes, less distorted by our cultural biases. They correct for the herd instinct, the impulse to jump on the latest curriculum bandwagon, to join the latest curriculum game. They do this by fostering the self- and social-critical disposition, the tendency to intellectual self-reliance.

It is said that intellectual self-reliance can take a terrible toll in anxiety and discomfort, and this is probably quite true. Not a few have reported getting terrible headaches from their liberal goggles, discarding them at length for a pair that simplifies. These simpler, push-button goggles are far more congenial because they tell their wearers what to do, sometimes step-by-step. In curriculum development, for example, one need only (1) analyze the situation, (2) select objectives, (3) select and organize content, (4) select and organize methods, and (5) evaluate.[11] Voilà! All plain and simple.

The goggles of liberal education correct for this push-button mentality, this quest for the capsule solution. They show that following directions won't work, that pushing the "affective education" button or the "inquiry approach" button cannot revive a sick curriculum any more than Secret or Close-Up can kindle a torrid romance. Most important, liberal goggles give one a framework for thought, a self-correcting critical perspective that fosters sane decision-making. Put somewhat more graphically, they provide a perspective that enables those with sufficient psychic stamina to slog through education's verbal-ideological swamp without losing touch with reality.

It is not surprising that the liberal standard holds out no set of directions for individuals to follow in difficult (and often impossible) situations. The only valid response to the question of what individuals and groups can do to bring about desirable curriculum change is "Think—then act." This response emphatically is not an evasion of the issue or an equivocation; it is derived from the conviction that human behavior in all situations is unavoidably the result of freely taken decisions, responsibility for which cannot be abrogated. And liberal goggles, which of all goggles most faithfully interpret given situations, as well as the consequences likely to issue from various courses of action, maximize the probability of the best choice being made.

Liberal goggles, in essence, keep us attuned to the long-range perspective. They show us that curriculum development is primarily and ultimately a moral enterprise—moral because whether we like it or not, our efforts are inevitably directed at making human beings something they would not otherwise become. The voice of the curriculum, indeed, speaks clearly and consistently: "These things, above all others, ought to be known because in the knowing we become better human beings and lead more humanly satisfying lives." A heady responsibility, indeed, to be borne by curriculum developers. And no matter what their special subject, the worth of their curriculum must ultimately stand this test.

Does the standard set by a liberal interpretation require that the Washington office be shut down, that public-relations campaigns be abolished, that the game of curriculum development be renounced as a foul perversion of educational ideals? Not at all, and to do so would reflect a kind of fanaticism that is entirely at odds with the liberal perspective. What the standard of the liberal perspective *does* do is to sustain a sense of perspective, a sense of the real. Education is *not* primarily a business, but certain concessions to the market place are probably necessary if the best of education's long-range goals are to be achieved. Education is *not* primarily political, but if curriculum developers refuse to be politic, they are certain to fail. In short, the liberal standard enables us to distinguish between what we must do and why we are doing it; between the pronouncements we make for public consumption and the educational convictions in whose service they are made.

The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages has recently joined forces with the National Council for the Social Studies to promote curriculum initiatives that interrelate foreign language and "global" education. I believe this cooperative effort to be an extremely important educational development with enormous potential for actualizing significant and highly desirable curriculum change. I fear, however, that this potential will be crushed by the weight of the movement's own success. My reading of a variety of professional publications suggests that Global Education is already well on its way to becoming the latest fashion in curriculum chic.[12]

Over forty years ago, Harold Rugg was insisting that there was no royal road to understanding—that there was only the way of hard work, intensive study, thinking to the bottom of things. He was right. We must cure ourselves of the itch for push-button answers, curriculum chic, the political shuffle. Curriculum development in the 80s can have an enormous educational impact, but only if we are willing to switch goggles, recognize the seduction of the market place, and play the game for *educational* stakes.

NOTES

1. See especially John Goodlad, "Can Our Schools Get Better?" *Phi Delta Kappan* (January 1979), pp. 342-47. Goodlad writes (p. 342): "...given the circumstances surrounding schooling today and what is needed to effect improvement, we...may not be up to it. Indeed, given certain of these circumstances and conditions, our schools may deteriorate...."

2. Iris R. Weiss, *Report of the 1977 National Survey of Science, Mathematics, and Social Studies Education* (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978).

3. The Rand Corporation, *Supporting Educational Change* (Santa Monica, CA: The Rand Corporation, 1978). Programs evaluated were: ESEA Title III (innovative programs), ESEA Title VII (bilingual education programs), Vocational Education Act, 1968 Amendments, Part D (exemplary programs), and Right-to-Read Program (Cooperative Research Act).

4. The term "political" as it is used here is not confined to phenomena involving government; it refers more broadly to all the processes by which conflict among competing public policies (and their underlying values) are resolved.

5. For a solidly researched and superbly readable account of how American history school books are regularly remade to suit changing sociopolitical fashions and prejudices, see Frances Fitzgerald, *America Revised* (Boston: Little, Brown, 1979).

6. See Betsy Hilbert, "Playing the Grantsmanship Game," *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, November 17, 1980, p. 64.

7. Anthony G. Oettinger (with Selma Marks), *Run, Computer, Run* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1969), p. 111.

8. William Ihlanfeldt, *Achieving Optimal Enrollments and Tuition Revenues: A Guide to Modern Methods of Market Research, Student Recruitment, and Institutional Pricing* (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1980).

9. See, for example, Robert I. Belknap and Richard Kuhns, *Tradition and Innovation: General Education and the Reintegration of the University* (New York: Columbia University Press, 1977); Noreen McGrath, "Major Effort to Revitalize Liberal Education is Launched by Association of Colleges," *Chronicle of Higher Education*, February 13, 1979; and Gaines Post, Jr., *The Humanities in American Life* (University of California Press, 1980).

10. See, for example, Ernest Becker, *Beyond Alienation* (New York: George Braziller, 1967); Theodore M. Greene, *Liberal Education Reconsidered* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1953); Robert M. Hutchins, *The Higher Learning in America* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1953); Horace Kallen, *The Education of Free Men* (New York: Farrar, Straus, and Giroux, 1949); and Everett Dean Martin, *The Meaning of a Liberal Education* (New York: Norton, 1922).

11. Audrey Nicholls and S. Howard Nicholls, *Developing a Curriculum: A Practical Guide* (London: George Allen & Unwin, 1978).

12. See Thomas S. Popkewitz, "Global Education as a Slogan System," *Curriculum Inquiry* (Fall 1980), pp. 303-16.

Priorities: Curriculum and Materials

The following recommendations are based on position papers prepared by Robert Lafayette and Lorraine Strasheim (Indiana University), Wilga Rivers (Harvard University), H.H. Stern (The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education), Albert Valdman (Indiana University), and Robert Zais (Kent State University), on two reactor papers drafted by Carol Sparks (Mount Diablo Unified School District, CA) and Helen Warriner-Burke (Virginia Department of Education), and discussions in which the above-named and Jane Bourque (Fairfield, CT) and John Darcey (West Hartford [CT] Public Schools) participated.

In the next decade, improvement in foreign language instruction can be expected to result, not from the emergence of wondrous pedagogical approaches or revolutionary breakthroughs in the disciplines that support foreign language instruction (linguistics, psychology), but clear-sighted formulation of learning objectives that respond to changing times and educational needs. These objectives, and the curriculum practices and materials designed to attain them, will necessarily vary according to specific local conditions: geographic area, language, age of learners, psychological and social characteristics of students. The determination of objectives should be based on broad philosophical considerations and on the results of needs analysis and questionnaires.

A curriculum comprises an integrated whole involving objectives, subject content, and methodological approaches. Curriculum design and the preparation of materials are not independent but interactive endeavors.

Multi-Dimensional Syllabus

Current materials are based on a situational-structural syllabus guiding the selection and ordering of grammatical features and vocabulary. A more appropriate framework for curriculum design and materials preparation would be provided by recognizing four types of syllabi: (1) linguistic; (2) cultural; (3) communicative; and (4) general language education.

Linguistic Syllabus

At present, the linguistic scope of materials is overambitious. The number of features presented needs to be reduced and the notion of what consitutes a linguistic feature needs to be profoundly modified. In addition to the conventional phonological, morphosyntactic, and lexical features, syllabi need to include features required for the oragnization of discourse (e.g., conversation openers and closes, hesitation features, fillers), as well as speech acts. Emphasis should be placed on semantic distinctions rather than outward form. A clear distinction needs to be made between linguistic features to be *recognized* by the learners and those over which they need to acquire productive control. Instead of presenting items of a syllabus in linear fashion, one should introduce them in a cyclical or spiral fashion; a feature is presented first for recognition control, then on one or more successive passes for varying degrees of productive control. The selection and ordering of content items should be determined by characteristics of learners, as well as their career choices.

Cultural Syllabus

Although the quality and scope of cultural materials found in present-day textbooks have improved significantly since the sixties, it is still viewed as an add-on by the great majority of teachers and thus plays a minimal role in foreign language offerings. A primary need in designing the foreign language curriculum is that it include an explicit cultural syllabus, one that will give meaning to the learning of languages. The present curriculum is primarily form-oriented; the future one must stress the learning of content as much as it does the learning of form. It is partly through an explicit cultural syllabus that foreign language learning will play an important role in a humanities-based education where students can acquire an in-depth understanding of the cultural values, attitudes, and institutions of one or more foreign cultures as well as a deeper understanding of their own values.

Although research is needed to define an acceptable minimum for this explicit cultural syllabus, cultural knowledge should include a wide representation of communities speaking the particular target language, including minority groups in the United States. One option would be to first focus on the culture of a dominant country (e.g., France in the case of the French language), extend consideration to other communities where the language is spoken (e.g., Quebec province), and, if applicable, complete the cycle with the study of ethnic groups speaking the language in the United States (e.g., Southwestern Louisiana).

The presence of an explicit cultural syllabus also implies that the scope and sequence of the foreign language curriculum not be based solely on linguistic features. At times, cultural elements will be grafted on the language to be taught while at other times, language elements will be grafted on basic cultural concepts. Finally, an explicit cultural syllabus mandates that its content be tested as seriously and as formally as the established linguistic syllabus.

Communicative Syllabus

In order to achieve some degree of communicative ability, foreign language students need to engage in the use of language in a near-natural context in addition to practice in the identification and production of linguistic elements (redefined more broadly). When students are engaging in communicative activities, the focus should be on effective transmission of meaning and efficient carry out of communicative tasks. It is important that errors of form be tolerated when students engage in communicative activities. Attempts should be made to simplify or reduce input so that it is in harmony with the learner's interlanguage while at the same time preserving authenticity.

While students should be encouraged in the foreign language classroom, simulation and role-playing can lead only to a limited degree of communicative ability. For students to achieve in-depth proficiency in the communicative use of a foreign language, they should be provided with opportunities to (a) acquire subject content by means of the foreign language (immersion approach, for example), or (b) interact in natural situations with speakers of the foreign language. The latter may be attained by:

- encouraging exchange programs at all levels (teacher-teacher, student-student)
- generalizing study abroad programs
- service work in the foreign language community (particularly in U.S. minority language communities)
- language camps and visits to minority language communities

General Language Education Syllabus

In addition to leading to the acquisition of skill in the use of a foreign language and to knowledge of the culture of the target language communities, a foreign language curriculum should serve to expand students' knowledge and understanding of the relationship between language and a variety of areas: language and culture, language and societal structure, language and thought, language and the development of personality. The study of a foreign language should impart an understanding of the nature of language and should form more enlightened attitudes about cultural differences. These broader educational objectives may be achieved within the format of conventional foreign language courses but also by exploratory language courses (especially at the middle school level) and by the study of Latin or Greek. To contribute significantly to general education, foreign language courses should include:

- learning how to learn a language;
- learning about language variation and about language varieties and levels of language use;
- the comparative study of cultures.

Priorities

(1) Research-based formulation of learning objectives that respond to changing times and educational needs.
(2) The definition of acceptable minimums in the four syllabi that will comprise the foreign language curriculum in order to establish a core for a basic language course and effect more efficient articulation from level to level.
(3) The development of a broader-based linguistic syllabus to include speech acts and discourse features in addition to the conventional phonological, morphosyntactic, and lexical features.
(4) The development of a broadly based explicit cultural syllabus.
(5) The development of experiential communicative activities that enable the learner to go beyond the defined linguistic and cultural syllabi.
(6) The development of a general language education component that permits students to transfer specific learning to learning about the nature of language, culture, and communication.
(7) The identification of viable optional curricula for use especially in early language learning and in adult and continuing education.

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Foreign Language Curricula and Materials for the Twenty-First Century

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The Problem

What does it mean to be human? What does it mean to communicate? What does it mean to live in a totally interdependent world? At first glance, the answers to these fundamental questions obviously constitute the core of a basic education. Unfortunately, however, these questions represent the three most criticized areas in contemporary American education: the lack of emphasis on the humanities, the lack of communication skills both in English and in second languages, and the lack of awareness of the interdependency of the world's nations.

These three fundamental questions also represent a unique challenge to the foreign language profession, for it is within its purview to design curricula that will contribute significantly to the improvement of these weak areas in American education. In fact, if the profession were to act upon June K. Phillips' admonition, it would take a giant step toward addressing these problems, for she has said: "It is time that we teach what we preach—the eighties will tolerate no less—that what happens in the classroom is what was promised, that as individuals we accept the cultural diversity we praise, that we represent the global perspective we espouse."[1]

Although the foreign language profession began to deal seriously with the issue of culture teaching in the early seventies, culture is yet to be integrated into foreign language curricula and teaching materials. Possibly the seventies saw the development of the alternative education movement and became a decade characterized by what Robert C. Lafayette has identified as "innovative overchoice."[2] Because cultural awareness, understanding, and/or empathy are goals cited for every foreign language program in this country, this proposal seeks to build upon the work begun but not yet completed—the integration of culture into foreign language curricula and teaching materials, for these curricula and materials ought to be as content-oriented as they are language-oriented.

Strength through Wisdom, the report of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies, stipulated that "International content should be part of the teaching of all subjects, and within the capabilities of all teachers," going on to add: "Curricula for teaching about other cultures and world issues need to be developed for virtually all subjects taught in our schools."[3] An assessment of the professional status quo, studies of the emerging directions in schooling and among learning specialists, and multidisciplinary efforts toward what is most commonly known as "global education," and the report of the Commission all indicate that foreign language curricula and materials need culture as a content base. This curriculum proposal therefore postulates that foreign language curricula and materials for the twenty-first century ought to be built on the "language-in-culture" concept developed in the 1972 *Northeast Conference Reports*[4] and/or that of "people study" advanced by Wallace E. Lambert.[5]

The Professional Status Quo

While the professional literature, national and state meetings, and the recent year devoted to the deliberations of the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies have assessed foreign language education in depth, some facets of the current status of foreign language teaching bear directly upon any discussion of curriculum and materials development.

Assumptions about Language Teaching

I. The surveys of enrollments made by the Modern Language Association and the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages are strong evidence that the vast majority of American students enroll for short-term sequences. There is no indication that this situation will change in the foreseeable future.

II. Whatever the professed goals of foreign language education, the highest priority in instruction is grammar and the greatest amount of instructional time is devoted to it.
   A. Textbooks, as revealed by their tables of contents and scope and sequence charts, are presently grammar-based.
   B. Teachers are best prepared to deal with grammar-based syllabi although increasing attention is being given to the potential role for notional/functional syllabi in second language education,[6] especially in English as a Second Language.
   C. Teachers tend to pay much more attention to form than to content.[7]

III. Textbooks contain too much material for the instructional time allotted, although there has been some movement recently toward the reduction of the amount of material presented in textbooks.[8]

IV. Two of the major goals of foreign language education—culture and communication—are left, by and large, to the resources, skills, and discretion of the teacher.
   A. Culture and communication are more often represented in the goals and/or titles of textbooks than in the teaching and learning materials themselves (e.g., Spanish for Communication,[9] *Unsere Freunde*[10]).
   B. Recent studies have shown that meaningful numbers of teachers are giving low priority and very little instructional time to either communication or culture or to both.[11]

V. Teachers will continue to be assigned multiple daily preparations and multi-level classes and will need all the aid the profession can supply.[12]

In the past curricula and materials have been developed, seemingly, with the full-time foreign language teacher in mind, the kind who has no more than three daily preparations, and the type of student who is committed to at least a three-year sequence. The present and the future, however, demand curricula and materials based on the realities of the teaching/learning situation. One of the realities to be faced is that only about half of the foreign language teacher population teaches a single language (or a single discipline) full-time. Another is that whatever changes are desired in teaching emphases and behaviors will have to be brought about in an environment in which the vast majority of teachers are tenured in and/or licensed for life.

The most distressing aspect of the status quo in foreign language education has to be the minimal amounts of attention devoted to the teaching of culture. As Helene Loew has pointed out:

> Culture should be the central part of second language course content because it is the ingredient which makes it possible for us to achieve our *humanistic objectives.*
>
> - The knowledge of the cultural context of words is essential to accurate communication.
> - The knowledge of the target language culture is essential to a capability for positive interaction with native speakers of that language.
> - The skills and knowledge acquired while developing a deep understanding of the target language culture can be expanded to be applied by students in their contacts with members of other culture groups from other countries and of the varied groups which compose American society. This capability will enrich their own cultural identity while improving the prospects for harmonious human relations.[13]

Loew concludes that the language teacher needs "an expanded definition of the word 'culture'."

Future Educational Directions

Just as one cannot ignore the status quo in planning the curricula of the future, no discussion of curriculum, whatever the discipline or subject-matter area, can be meaningful if the directions in which schools and institutions of higher learning are moving are not considered.

John I. Goodlad, first of all, has projected that the roles of schools and universities will be defined and/or appraised in terms of "the total ecology within which they function,"[14] what Walt Anderson calls "the social, economic, and political systems in relation to the living environment."[15]

Within that broad construct, Harold G. Shane has projected that "concepts of what constitutes a basic education will move along two diverse but compatible tracks." He explains:

> A decline in mass standardized test scores beginning in the middle school years, the parental concern reflected each year in opinion polls, and legislated requirements will accelerate trends toward achieving the "educational excellence" which became a slogan in the early 1960s and helped start the curriculum reform movement of that era. In addition, however, the problems of a threatened biosphere will require the teaching of new basics: the knowledge that will help the next generation work to restore equilibrium between humans and their environment.[16]

Both tracks are related to needs in foreign languages. The drive toward educational excellence, also hit upon by the President's Commission, should motivate the development of more viable language skills; the "new basics" include far greater understanding of the peoples on this planet.

While resistance will certainly be met, the humanist movement, calling for "concentration on processes more than behaviors," such as "facilitation, encouragement, helping, aiding, assisting, providing opportunities, and creating needs to know"[17] will be stressed among the varied approaches to learning. Processes are more appropriate to both of the tracks Shane identifies and to evaluating educational institutions in terms of "the total ecology within which they function."

World-Centered Education

Whether the rubric be future studies, global education, international studies, world-centered education, or any of dozens of other designations, no plan for curriculum today can afford to overlook the multidisciplinary educational philosophy and curriculum movement which is emerging in American schools and colleges. While no discipline has large numbers of teacher-practitioners as yet, the professional literature of every discipline—English, the natural sciences, the social sciences, mathematics, *and* foreign languages—is addressing the American need for greater knowledge of the peoples, problems, and systems of the world.

Global education, to use the most common appellation for this phenomenon, is a multidisciplinary educational philosophy and curricular movement which seeks changes in the content, the methods, and the social context of American education in an effort to focus upon cultural studies and to bring the humanities to bear upon modern social issues and problems[18] in order to "help young people live in, respond to, and shape their world."[19] Global education, thus, is a part of citizenship education.[20] Those who prefer to call this phenomenon "global education" may prefer this designation for the reasons advanced by the Wisconsin State Social Studies Curriculum Study Committee: "The word 'global'...is much more than a geographic term—it is a concept that includes the attributes of cultural content, a way of approaching a study (a method), and a view of social context that shows relationships among human beings and between humankind and the universe. Global studies is the responsibility of all teachers of all disciplines."[21]

Because world-centered or global education is designed to "help young people live in, respond to, and shape their world," the instruction, the teaching materials, and the learning activities are learner-centered, focused on the humanistic processes approaches.[22] Like the Club of Rome, the proponents of world-centered education believe that "Learning is the process of preparing to deal with new situations."[23] But while the content derives from culture studies and/or transnational issues and problems, the instruction and learnings are related to the learners' community, state, or region, for as Donald N. Morris advises:

> ...(T)o be effective any realistic program of global education for children must have much of its roots in their own daily lives and the relationships of their own communities to the rest of the world. Everyone lives in some local community on this globe, and as valuable as it most certainly is to see the world from space to gain new perspectives, we must not overlook the individual child and his/her experience base in a given part of that global whole.[24]

Unless the students come to grips with pluralism, the native speakers of other languages, the cultures embedded in the mainstream culture of their city or state, and the business connections of that locale and the world, they will be deprived of one of the longest lasting values of a global education experience.

Within these frameworks, the goals of instruction of global education, according to David C. King and Larry E. Condon, call for curricula, whatever the disciplines, offering opportunities:

1. To learn to recognize the interconnections between one's own life, one's society, and major global concerns such as environment, resources, population, and human

rights—and how these interconnections affect our future options and choices.

2. To develop an understanding of basic human commonalities, at the same time recognizing the importance of individual and cultural differences.
3. To develop an awareness of how perceptions differ among individuals and between groups.
4. To develop the skills which enable adequate responses to an electronic age, with its increasing volume of information and technological choices.
5. To acquire an ability to respond constructively and flexibly to local, national, and global events, as individuals and as members of groups.[25]

These goals clearly reveal that this movement (a) is content-centered and (b) requires total-school involvement.

Some research, which needs to be extended to further studies, has addressed the psychological, social, institutional, and political obstacles to the development of global perspectives.[26] Much more, too, has to be learned as to what attitudes are being fostered in second language and culture studies.[27] An important area of study in this regard is the effect of teaching differences and similarities upon student attitudes as in the research undertaken by Harry Grover Tuttle and his colleagues.[28]

It is really not important that foreign language teachers become "converted" to world-centered or global education, fly the banner, as it were. What is important is that the leaders in second languages study global education, capitalize upon those concepts and goals which can strengthen our curricula and teaching materials, and offer positive aid to those teachers involved in total-school efforts in global education.

Some of the ways in which foreign languages can be strengthened through a global or world-centered orientation was very well defined by Helene Z. Loew in her reaction to the first draft of this paper, at the National Conference on Priorities. What follows is her work.

A Global Orientation to Culture Content

Helene Z. Loew

The teaching of culture cannot be limited to providing students mere knowledge of a variety of facts about a cultural group's heritage or of behaviors that may appear quaint or "different" when viewed from within an American cultural frame of reference. Each of these facts taken individually may be very interesting and perhaps significant, like a single piece from a jigsaw puzzle, but the revelation of a haphazard sampling of these pieces may not necessarily produce an idea of the total picture and of its meaning. The relationship of carefully selected pieces must be established in order to make it possible to reconstruct the rest of the picture.

Beyond the knowledge of isolated cultural manifestations, students must become aware of some of the following basic facts:

- Individual attitudes, ways of thinking, of acting, and more generally of coping with the daily challenge of harmonious living in a social group, are determined, to a great extent, by a system of values which is particular to that group.
- The students themselves are conditioned by such a group environment.
- Other people within their own community, as in far away places, live in different cultural environments.
- All cultural systems include aspirations and beliefs that are shared by all human beings as well as values which are unique to each.
- Language and its use is one of the more important manifestations of each culture.

While learning the target language and culture, students should be helped to identify the dominant values of the cultural group or groups involved and to recognize that these dominant values determine the cultural manifestations they encounter. They should learn to use their knowledge of those dominant values to explain and perhaps eventually to anticipate heretofore unknown manifestations of that culture.

Students should be helped to realize that "different" ways cannot be judged as "bad" or "good" according to another value system such as their own; that a value system is the formalization of the best way a group has been able to devise to live in its particular environment; and that a given value system or culture is the result of centuries of refinement and that it continues to evolve as the environment itself changes. As John W. Gardner says:

> You will never advance far in your understanding of another culture if you devote yourself to explaining that some things about it are wonderful and other things are terrible. This comes under the heading of entertainment and should not be confused with understanding. No society is all good or all bad, and the discovery that any particular society is compounded of both good and bad is not a very impressive finding. What you must try to do is to understand problems a society faces; why it has developed that way; why it has certain characteristics rather than others; why it does some things well and others so badly.[29]

Our students need to learn that all cultures include universally shared aspirations and distinguishing characteristics which vary with time and generations, with location-region and the countries where the language is spoken, and with the level of education and social class.[30]

Unless the foreign language profession is willing to give up the cultural goals it has defined and espoused, it must focus on both its communicative and cultural teaching in the pursuit of educational excellence and in order to better prepare a student population with second language skills, including the understanding of cultural meaning and logic, as we speed toward the twenty-first century. To do anything else is to deny our *raison d'être*. And in that process the profession must learn how to learn from its educator-colleagues in other disciplines—to be less "turf-bound."

Priorities for Developing Foreign Language Curricula

Having stated the problem and given consideration to the present status of language teaching, the future direction of education in schools and institutions of higher learning, and the impact of world-centered education on the total curriculum, the next step is to formulate a set of priorities to guide us in constructing appropriate foreign language syllabi. These priorities, while not etched in stone, are, nonetheless, the foundation upon which the curricula of the future are to be built. Their order of presentation, although logical, is not meant to imply any hierarchical importance.

I. *Multidisciplinary Consultation.* Although the study of a foreign language constitutes a discrete subject matter or discipline, its content very often overlaps with numerous and various subject matter areas. Because of its important role in basic, humanistic, and global education, the foreign language curriculum, like the curricula in all other disciplines, must be the result of multidisciplinary inaction and consultation.[31] This interaction does not imply that specific foreign language classroom objectives will be defined by a consortium of assorted teachers. It does, however, mean that a cross-section of the faculty in a school or institution should collaborate in defining the holistic educational objectives that students are to achieve and the curricula options open to them in achieving them.[32] The foreign language teacher plays an important role in this task since the subject matter that he or she teaches often includes art, music, literature, mathematics, home economics, science and social sciences in addition to language itself. Multidisciplinary interaction not only serves to clarify the role of foreign languages in holistic education, but also offers teachers a setting to explore a variety of "crossovers" for the sharing of ideas and materials, and even some class exchanges.[33]

II. *Pedagogical "Fit" and Instructional Coherence.* The instructional materials designed for foreign language learning in the next decade and beyond must synthesize the best professional thinking as to the amounts of material "fitting" the school year and the class period and the age and development stage of the learner. Materials designed for standard secondary school or university sequences will differ from those designed for early language learners or adult learners enrolled in continuing education offerings. In addition to this pedagogical fit, materials must demonstrate an internal coherence that provides "matches" among goals, instruction, and evaluation. Because textbooks define the curriculum for the majority of teachers, their content must meet the selection criteria established by the profession and include language, culture and communication components as integral parts of the instructional and testing programs.[34]

III. *Content-Oriented Syllabus.* The future foreign language curriculum must stress the learning of content as much as it does the learning of form. Culture must extend beyond its integration of the core materials, the drills and exercises, the readings, and the communication activities[35] to the point where there exists alongside the linguistic syllabus an explicit cultural syllabus that includes cultural knowledge about a wide representation of communities speaking the foreign language, including minorities in the United States. Although research is needed to better define the scope of the cultural syllabus, it is suggested that its sequence first focus on the culture of a dominant country (e.g., France), extend consideration to other communities where the language is spoken (e.g., Quebec) and, if applicable, complete the cycle with the study of ethnic groups speaking the language in the United States. Finally, the existence of an explicit cultural syllabus implies that the scope and sequence of the curriculum not be based solely on linguistic features. At times cultural elements will be grafted on the language features to be taught, while at other times, language elements will be grafted on basic cultural concepts.

IV. *Establishment of a Core-Curriculum.* Due to the excess of materials often found in textbooks there is a crucial need to define a set of minimum goals to accompany both the linguistic and the cultural syllabi. Once established, these goals would constitute the core of the basic standard sequence and act as a potential standard in defining goals for optional language sequences. Although work has already been done in identifying basic cultural concepts,[36] a considerable amount of research is needed to identify the minimum components of the explicit cultural syllabus. This research should not be attempted without consulting several of the social sciences.[37] Definition of the core linguistic syllabus will need to go beyond the traditional grammatical features and at least consider the research done with the notional/functional syllabus.[38] Valdman and Burke suggest that "higher priority should be given to semantic notions than to surface features in selecting and ordering grammatical features, and that emphasis not be on teaching a specified set of grammatical features, but rather on showing what grammatical devices are available to express semantic notions and perform communicative functions.[39]

V. *Beyond the Basic Curriculum.* The above priorities define principles for building a basic culture-based communication curriculum, "basic" because it is not meant to be "beginning" or "elementary," but rather, in Valdman's words, it is meant to "provide a body of knowledge, skills, and attitudes of value to non-specialized students."[40] Beyond this basic curriculum, which might last from one to three years, depending on the level, students should have the opportunity to continue their contact with the language by selecting one of three options: (1) a continuation of the culture-based communication curriculum; (2) a curriculum designed for those who have high interest in the language and/or its literature and wish to develop it into an area of specialization; (3) a content-based curriculum taught in the foreign language where courses in history, culture and civilization, the arts, sociology, and other areas would be taught using the foreign language as the vehicle of instruction.

VI. *Total Evaluation.* Discrete-point grammar tests have traditionally been the most popular, and oftentimes the only testing devices used by foreign language teachers and texts. Even texts which claim cultural immersion limit their tests to discrete grammar items. The new curriculum mandates that the evaluation instruments be developed that will test communication skills and idea content or knowledge as well as form.[41]

VII. *Teachers as Co-Learners.* Since the vast majority of teachers are tenured in and/or licensed for life, it is impossible to suggest curricular changes without considering its impact on those who will be coping with these changes daily. Since the proposed linguistic and cultural syllabi will include concepts and content new to the average teacher, the materials will need to be structured so that at least part of the teacher training will be done through the materials themselves. The teachers will be co-learners with the students.[42] In addition, teachers will have to be nurtured through outreach activities of state departments of public instruction, professional organizations, teacher centers, area study centers, their own administrations, and colleges and universities.[43] Hopefully the future will see the emergence of a variety of international centers, in this country and abroad, where teachers of many disciplines may go for inservice training, for assistance in curriculum and materials development, and varied aids and information.

VIII. *The Role of Latin.* Latin teachers and Latin education need not and should not be excluded from any efforts undertaken, for global educators do not ignore the past, they merely treat the learnings differently. Latin teachers, too, can benefit from the work of those in modern languages who are seeking more meaningful and "learnable" approaches to the structure and the amounts of structure taught. Latin students whose lives are filled with ever escalating change, for example, could profit from studying a Roman emperor like Diocletian, whose response to change was to decree that every man must stay in his job, that sons must assume the same jobs as their fathers, and that neighbors had to assume the land and work it when farmers fled to escape their enormous tax burdens. Diocletian's answer to change was to decree that there be no more; students can also benefit from study of the linguistic interconnections between Latin and other languages in the world.

Conclusion

The purpose of this paper has not been to propose yet another short-range "Band-Aid" approach to a problem which has been sufficiently articulated throughout the printed media, both public and professional. Rather, it has been to propose a long-range solution which hopefully will result in a foreign language curriculum built on the intercommunication of three components: language, communication, and culture. It is the relationship between these components that will characterize the study of foreign languages as humanistic, as a viable part of general education. Carol Herron states that "while it is difficult to build a case for second-language study solely on grounds of cognitive development due to a paucity of current research, or primarily on utilitarian reasons because of the average two-year sequence of study, a case can be put forth in favor of second-language study for all students if it is based on a cultural framework—second language study can expose students to the reality that other peoples have other ways of understanding the world as evidenced by the language they speak."[44]

Perhaps the best way to summarize our endeavor would be to say that it is not language, communication *and* culture that should be taught, but rather language *as* communication and culture.

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Global Education: An Area for Fruitful Collaboration between Foreign Language and Social Studies

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Those who are interested in foreign language instruction distinguish between approaches which foster skills in reading, writing, speaking, and comprehending; there are also important distinctions within the areas of global and international education. The approach which is probably most familiar to foreign language educators is the addition of a *cultural dimension* using one or more countries where the language is spoken. This is implicit in some texts which present situations from everyday life in dialogues or exercises and has become somewhat more explicit recently through the inclusion of specific units on culture. The link between foreign language and international content through the use of elements of culture is one of the most obvious ones between the study of foreign language and social studies.

At least two questions should be critically evaluated in regard to this dimension. First, how adequate is the representation of culture in foreign language texts? Moreau and Pfister and Levno and Pfister analyzed both the deep culture and surface culture presentations in college French texts.[1] Only one of ten second-year college French texts was evaluated as adequate in conveying deep French culture (elements such as individualism, religion as a social force). Only two of twenty-one first-year texts were adequate in French surface culture content. For example, although the Arts were well covered, the political system and use/exploitation of the environment were infrequently dealt with. It is likely that secondary level texts would be evaluated in a similar way. A second question is how explicit and/or effective the recent attempts to include a cultural dimension have been. Levno and Pfister conclude that because the texts seldom used questions dealing with the cultural content or the contrast between French and American culture, students were unlikely to gain the cultural perspective which was intended.[2] The perceptions of college students about the non-language content of language courses leads to some concern about explicitness and effectiveness also. The following conclusion was drawn from the ETS/Council on Learning survey of 3000 college freshmen and seniors and students in two-year colleges. Students were given a list of nineteen courses and asked which, if any, they believed had contributed to their awareness of world issues (as measured on a test which included a substantial number of items on world-wide culture and the arts). "Although modern foreign languages were among the seven most elected (taken) subjects, they were not highly rated by students as contributing to their global understanding."[3] The correlations between rated language proficiency and scores on this test of international/global knowledge were very low. There were some significant relations between foreign language courses and a measure of empathy for those in other nations, however.[4] Whatever cultural dimensions are being included in language courses (at least at the college level) appear in fact to be of limited effectiveness in shaping student awareness of the world and are so perceived by students. Studies of junior and senior high school students give only slightly more encouraging results.[5]

A second approach, closely related to the inclusion of the cultural dimension, is the *area studies approach.* Within some language courses this may be difficult to separate from the inclusion of a single cultural dimension. Units using materials from several countries in a region may be somewhat more likely to appear in Spanish texts (where one can study Latin America as an area) than in French texts (where countries in which the language is spoken are so much more widely spread—Europe, North America, Africa, the Caribbean). In fact, Levno and Pfister found that slightly less than a third of the first-year college French texts even included a map of the world highlighting the location of French-speaking countries.[6] The area studies approach has a great deal to recommend it for language students. It may help to construct a more diversified picture of the connections between culture and language by pointing out that there are both similarities and differences among countries using a common language within a region (accent, language policy, relation to native languages, connections of European languages with colonial educational systems). In the case of languages spoken in countries with especially diverse cultural traditions (e.g., Arabic), it may be critical to consider a regional context. Concepts concerning cultural and regional issues should probably be reinforced through specific learning experiences and not merely stated as generalizations.

A third approach is referred to as *intercultural or multicultural studies.* This has two rather different emphases. The first includes attempts to train individuals to work in other cultures. Workshops and publications of organizations such as the Society for Intercultural Education, Training, and Research often take language competence as a given; they concentrate on issues such as nonverbal communication through gesture patterns and the recognition of value dissimilarities. The second emphasis in intercultural or multicultural studies is on domestic ethnic groups (Italian Americans, Polish Americans) and their cultural contributions. Although many of these domestic ethnic groups have substantial foreign language resources (e.g., first or second generation German- or Spanish-speaking individuals), there has been very little attempt to bring together language and intercultural or multicultural studies in schools. However, there have been a few recent attempts at the college level to bring together the culture of Cuban, Chicano, and Puerto Rican students with language study, to consider Afro-Hispanic literature, and to integrate French and Spanish study with the study of Black racial groups.[7] It is probable that the connections between ethnicity, culture, and language could be much more fruitfully utilized than they are at present (especially for high school students in communities with a substantial number of first and second generation immigrants and in areas with high proportions of Hispanic and Black students).

The fourth approach is that of *global education*. Since this is the topic which ACTFL has expressed an interest in integrating with foreign language study, let us examine it in somewhat more detail. Educators often discuss whether one should refer to education to promote a global perspective or the infusion of a global dimension in education (rather than simply to global education). These may seem unnecessary distinctions, but they do point to the intent that the global perspective permeates a variety of subjects in the curriculum and not be thought of as another topic to be added as a new course to an already overcrowded list.

While foreign language instruction primarily involves skills and motivation (to learn and use skills), there are a variety of objectives in global education. First there is knowledge—of geography, political institutions, patterns of resource distribution. Skills are also part of global education—skills in analyzing information (often from the media as well as materials tailored for schools), skills in analyzing problems, and potential solutions. One of the hallmarks of global education, in the opinion of many, is its stress on global problems—problems which are important in all or the majority of regions of the world, problems with their roots in increasing interdependence, and problems whose solutions involve some kind of international cooperation. Frequently mentioned in this regard are problems such as the guarantee or disregard for human rights, just or unjust distributions of economic resources, natural resource depletion, conflict within or between nations. Some groups which have made attempts to define this area (such as the representatives of more than sixty nations who drafted the 1974 UNESCO Recommendation on Education for International Understanding, Cooperation and Peace and Education Relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms) have given especially extensive attention to problem-centered approaches as essential if global education is to have a strong content base of an interdisciplinary character and is to avoid lapsing into platitudes about international understanding.[8]

In addition to an emphasis on problems in global education, there is also an emphasis on the idea of perspective. Hanvey, in a paper frequently cited on this subject, points to the importance of perspective awareness—consciousness that not everyone in the world shares the same view as Americans.[9] A hallmark of global education may be thought of as the development of a habit of mind which contextualizes experiences—putting the individual's experience as a citizen of one nation into a global or international perspective. This is more than knowledge of geography or political leaders, it is a new context for relating events to each other which may lead to a new understanding of the behavior of other nations and peoples.

In the area of building perspective awareness, there is also some relevant research in psychology—work on the development of skills in perspective-taking and referential communication. Interest in this research area began with Piaget's work on perceptual egocentrism (the child's inability to recognize that a perceptual display looks different to someone standing in a different position). More recent research has concentrated on the child's ability to take the perspective of someone else regarding a social situation, and this is the work which bears the closest relationship to the acquisition of a global perspective. Various psychologists point to different parts of this process—awareness of the existence of another perspective, the ability to take someone else's perspective and tailor a communication to that perspective, the ability to switch from one perspective to another (including less familiar situations). Some individuals, when viewing perspective-taking—especially its affective aspect—link it closely to the development of empathy.[10]

Nearly all the research has led to the conclusion that rudimentary perspective-taking skills develop in early childhood, but that middle childhood (about eight to eleven) is a period when the individual is able to understand for the first time the perspective of individuals who are markedly dissimilar or in complex and unfamiliar situations. It is this research (along with studies on the increase in group conformity at about thirteen or fourteen) which has led to designating middle childhood an optimal period for various kinds of global education.[11] There have also been some training studies in perspective-taking which have shown that situations in which the individual is called upon to act out the roles of other individuals (either in videotaped skits or sociodramatic play) seem to enhance perspective-taking ability.[12]

There are two implications of taking the global education approach which are especially important for the connection of foreign language to social studies education. The first recognizes that the global approach stresses contemporary problems and attempts to motivate students to participate in their solution. Because many of these relate to economic distribution and poverty, this approach, if taken seriously, would differ rather substantially from the cultural element traditionally included in foreign language courses (which are more likely to stress art, theater, or the daily life of the middle class.) Many global problems involve political issues. The inclusion of a global dimension in language instruction might require students to learn vocabulary to permit them to read newspaper editorials, political rhetoric, or statements of individuals who are attempting to work with situations of poverty or injustice. For some students this content may be more interesting than reading about the daily life of middle class adolescents or adapted sections from great literature. But it will require further collaborative effort between social studies and language teachers and careful inservice education before language teachers feel comfortable handling the social and political issues which arise for discussion from such material. It may be important also to guard against presenting a stereotyped view of other nations as poverty- or problem-ridden or lacking in culture.

Perhaps more important, the full potential of foreign language instruction to further the awareness of and ability to operate with a global perspective—a way of looking at events—has never been explored fully. Helping students to acquire this context for their experience may be the most fruitful result of the inclusion of cultural or global perspectives. There is already some evidence that bilingual individuals possess certain cognitive advantages. Toro and Torney-Purta compared the performance of four groups of university students on tasks requiring general cognitive flexibility; the groups were balanced Spanish bilinguals (who performed on a cloze fluency test in Spanish and English at a similar level), unbalanced Spanish bilinguals, students in the second year of learning Spanish, and a group which had never studied any language. As in previous research, the balanced bilinguals were superior to the other groups in their levels of cognitive flexibility, suggesting that a history of bi-directional switching experience (between languages) has a significant impact upon cognitive tasks which require switching or flexibility.[13] Of greater interest for the purpose of this paper was the fact that the learners of a second language also demonstrated enhanced performance (when compared to the unbalanced bilinguals and monolinguals) on some flexibility tasks. This was interpreted as indicating that the practice of language switching given to those learning a language may have at least a short-term impact upon cognitive flexibility. It is tempting to speculate that language study can enhance a variety of cognitive abilities, including perspective-taking. In fact, it may be that learning foreign language, even to a relatively low level of proficiency, can enhance the contextualizing of experience which is the essence of a global perspective in a way that no other kind of study can.

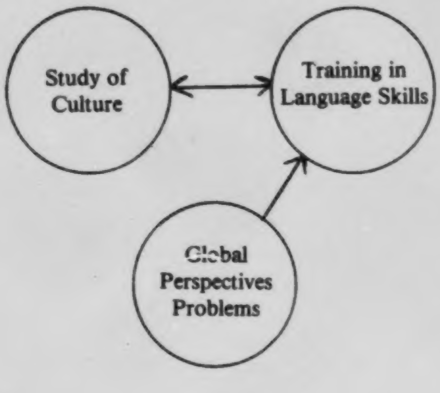
Some potential outcomes of foreign language instruction seem to be close to what is called metalinguistic awareness. In developmental psychology in the last few years there has been considerable study of fields known as metacognition, metamemory, and, most recently, metalinguistics. These are defined as the individual's verbalizable knowledge about the processes of thinking, remembering, and speaking. Students are interviewed about situations in which they must memorize something and are asked how they go about memorizing, or they are asked about processes of generating and understanding language. So far, however, the large majority of metalinguistic study has been confined to investigating knowledge about speaking the mother tongue. Hake has related English metalinguistic ability to concrete operations among four to eight year olds.[14] Most researchers have concluded that the years from about seven until eleven or twelve are the period during which metacognitive and metalinguistic ability increase at a relatively rapid rate.

One pilot interview study has given some information about the metalinguistic ability of children when they are queried about speaking languages other than their mother tongue. When asked, "What makes people in other countries different from you?" approximately seventy percent of elementary school children mentioned language. (This percentage remained fairly constant over a four-year period.) For example, these responses were given by an eight-year old boy:

I: How are people in other countries different from you?
C: Most talk Mexican.
I: Anything else?
C: Most talk different from us.
I: Do you think it would be better if everyone in the world were American?
C: Yes, because I want them to talk normal, the way we do.[15]

This is a rather extreme example of a child who is unable to take the perspective of those who belong to different linguistic communities. By the end of elementary school, even in the absence of language instruction, many students are aware that people are attached to speaking the language they learned as children, that it requires a long time and investment of effort to learn another language, and that people in other countries would appropriately resist being required to learn English (or even a world language, if such were to be developed). However, a substantial proportion fail to achieve these understandings. In the absence of readily available opportunities for American children to visit places where people speak only languages other than English (an opportunity available much more readily in Europe), one of the most valuable outcomes of exposure to foreign language instruction may be the enhanced ability to more fully take the perspective of someone who does not speak English. This is also important as a way to reduce feelings of ethnolinguistic superiority. That kind of perspective awareness and perspective-taking ability may be enhanced particularly by an explicit attempt to include materials on cultural or global perspectives as an integral part of language study. The experience of a child who speaks only English may be given a very important context if he or she learns even a small amount of a language or several languages, especially if this learning is enhanced with cultural or global content.

A model which may be useful in visualizing the three major elements being discussed here in dynamic interaction is the following:



At present the two circles on top are in some kind of frequent interaction. The definition of topics in this paper has sought to bring the global-perspective-and-problems approach into a position where it will be able to bounce off the other two. Some sparks of friction are sure to fly—some of them predictable in any interdisciplinary collaboration, others specific to the situation of foreign language/social studies. But the exercise of trying to keep these three circles in interaction with each other is a useful next step in the dialogue between the profession of foreign language teacher and the profession of social studies educator.

Suggested Needs and Priorities

1. Experimentation with materials which not only include cultural elements from a country or region, but also concentrate on the study of global problems both on a macro level (through the inclusion of excerpts from newspapers in instructional material) and on the micro level (e.g., through the inclusion of in-depth and non-stereotypic presentations of personal experiences of global problems from a broad variety of economic levels).
2. Expansion of inservice training for foreign language teachers to sensitize them to techniques for the discussion of global problems, intercultural education, and multicultural ethnic curricula as appropriate for different groups and age levels.
3. Inservice training for social studies teachers to provide them with examples of foreign language as it indicates a particular perspective or world view.
4. Identification of school buildings within districts where the principal and one or more teachers of social studies and language will cooperate on curriculum development tailored to their situation.
5. Identification of out-of-school resource persons who may have unique access to all three dimensions: language study; cultural aspects; and the realities of global problems. Two such groups who might, for example, speak Spanish, be aware of political and economic aspects of the North-South dialogue, and have experience with the everyday life of poor persons in Latin America, would be former missionaries and returned Peace Corps volunteers.
6. Further attempts to explore, through research and experimental curricula, ways of linking the perspective awareness which can come from language study (even at relatively low levels of fluency) with the global perspective, the international perspective, and the intercultural perspective. This should include studies of metalinguistic foreign language awareness.
7. Sharing results of activities undertaken at meetings of ACTFL and the National Council for the Social Studies.

NOTES

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Priorities: Global Education

The following recommendations on priorities in global education are based on position papers prepared by Lorraine Strasheim and Robert Lafeyette (Indiana University) and Judith Torney-Purta (University of Maryland, College Park) with reaction papers by Helene Z. Loew (New York State Department of Education) and Andrew W. Smith (Global Perspectives in Education, New York City) and discussions, including David Roth (Institute on Pluralism and Group Identity, Chicago).

The state of the world today is presenting educators with both new opportunities and new responsibilities. It is the state of the world that is influencing movement in education today, movement involving the English language arts, the social and natural sciences, mathematics, and foreign languages.

The movement, whether or not it is identified by the rubric of "global education" or subsumed in that effort, is a movement toward:

- a unity of the sciences and humanities;
- bringing the humanities to bear upon modern social issues;
- more holistic educational experiences; and
- developing cultural awareness, cultural empathy, and perspective consciousness.

The emphasis, whatever the discipline, is not on new programs but rather on realigning priorities in existing courses and programs. The effort is also to end the handling of skill subjects as drill subjects—to motivate students by presenting them with new content in problem-posing and interactive contexts. Because the professional literature of all disciplines and professional associations has been filled with movements toward these ends, the overall effect is to evolve an organizing principle for the curricula of the total school. It matters little which of the more than fifty rubrics is used; "global education" is simply the most common.

The educational environment is providing foreign language teachers with an opportunity to reevaluate, reorient, and rethink what they are *really* about in regard to the facts that:

- the vast majority of students are involved in short sequences of study;
- there is no lasting idea content to survive the short sequence of study;
- the recent research by Gertrude Moskowitz, Anne Nerenz, and Peter Eddy shows that culture has an extremely minimal role in foreign language offerings;
- there is need to define a reasonable and realistic role for grammar; and
- two of our major goals—communication and culture—are left almost wholly to the individual teacher's discretion, ingenuity, and resources.

The education environment, too, whether one considers it a single movement—global education—or a series of simultaneous movements in the various disciplines, offers foreign language teachers the opportunity to achieve the goals we have been espousing for many years: (1) multidisciplinary cooperation, collaboration, and coalitions; and (2) bridges to private enterprises and other support agencies and organizations.

The state of the world and the present educational environment also impose some new responsibilities. These include the responsibilities to:

- make future-oriented decisions as to how to implement humanistic educational experiences dealing with interdependence, change, conflict, and communication;
- initiate efforts to interest career teachers in studying such languages as Arabic, Japanese, Chinese, or Swahili for the curricula of the future; and
- incorporate languages of ethnic groups (e.g., the Boat People) into our educational offerings such as exploratory courses.

The foremost responsibility is to recognize education as a long-range solution. In this social and educational context, the global education participants have established one priority and three strong recommendations.

The Priority

ACTFL should establish a collaborative professional effort, comparable to the cooperation leading to the Essentials of Education, to define common aims and goals by the time of the simultaneous meetings of ACTFL and the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) in San Francisco in 1983. The participants in this effort should include:

- participants from the National Conference on Professional Priorities;
- the membership at large, especially classroom teachers;
- representatives from the business sector;
- representatives from English, the social and natural sciences, the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD), and administrator and school board associations.

The Recommendations

(1) In attacking the problems of curriculum and materials development, the prime focus should be on the middle school because of this age group's importance in the development of international perspectives. There is support for the middle school as a prime focus in:
    - the National Science Foundation's emphasis on early adolescence;
    - the greater flexibility in the school structure permitting greater multidisciplinary interaction;
    - the fact that elementary programs will be of no substantive effect if there is no middle school reinforcement and expansion of the experiences offered in the grades; and
    - this is a "bulge" of student population that should not be ignored or neglected.

(2) Model programs, including validation by observation and through evaluation and research, should:
    - be identified and publicized through *Foreign Language Annals*;
    - be able to rely on the ACTFL Materials Center to collect and disseminate their syllabi and materials; and
    - be encouraged to present conference sessions and workshops at both ACTFL's Annual Meeting and at state and regional conferences.

(3) Due to the great numbers of teachers who are tenured in and licensed for life, short-term training models, incorporating strategies for acting as change agents, with follow-up, should be developed. One possibility discussed was a summer experience with reinforcement and aid provided at the ACTFL Annual Meeting in the fall and a regional conference in the spring. "Short-term" in this context means two weeks or eighty hours.

(4) An overriding procedural recommendation is that the materials from this session should be integrated with those evolved in the curriculum and materials group.

Conclusion

We need, for a variety of reasons, to concentrate on humanistic approaches to culture studies and the development of second language skills to better prepare students for the life, citizenship, and career roles they will be assuming five, ten, or more years from now, for a world Harlan Cleveland characterized as "round, fully packed, and fragile." As we make our decisions as to our priorities, rubrics and semantics are less important than our ability to determine for what world we are preparing our second languages—our fathers', ours, or theirs.

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Curricular and Comprehensive Program Evaluation

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The generally accepted model for evaluating educational programs includes three separate but highly interrelated components. The commonly used terms for these program elements are *inputs, operations,* and *outputs.*[1] Evaluation of any educational program is dependent on defining each component in the program and identifying the interrelationships which exist among them. *Inputs* are the skills, aptitudes, and desires which the learners bring with them to the program. The end goals or objectives of the program, i.e., what the learners should know, do, or feel after completing the program are called *outputs.* Under the third term, *operations,* are included all of the instructional treatments, including teacher variables, instructional techniques, and curricular options, which are designed to build on the inputs to produce the desired outputs.

The interrelationships among this triad of identified components cannot be expressed with a simple linear model where available inputs are operated upon and desired outputs result. Input characteristics such as learning styles will also determine, in many cases, the nature of the teaching operations used. The desires and goals of the learners should play a role in establishing output goals. Furthermore, educational research has repeatedly demonstrated that input aptitudes will consistently correlate with output achievement. Because of the interrelated nature of these input, operation, and output elements, the quality of any educational program can only be assessed by solving the equivalent of an equation with three unknown quantities. It is, therefore, impossible to evaluate educational programs and curricular options without defined program objectives and knowledge of learner input characteristics.

It is also evident that despite these obvious interdependencies, the overriding factor in curriculum planning must be program objectives. Learner input characteristics may be considered in setting program objectives, and will surely be considered in designing the operations which should bring the learner to those objectives, but program goals are determinant in designing a program's instructional components and are of paramount importance in program evaluation.

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The Primary Problem

A lack of specific objectives or output goals is the greatest stumbling block in foreign language program evaluation. Although the profession gives lip service to developing usable communication skills, it has yet to precisely define what that means in terms of functional language ability.[2] Our professed goal of teaching functional language skills is, in general, not reflected in our curriculum, in our instructional activities, or in our tests and reporting procedures. We promise the students functional ability in a foreign language and then provide insufficient time to acquire those skills.[3] We use inappropriate instructional techniques, and do not test communicative skills.[4] Both within and without the profession we continue to state requirements and levels of achievement in time units rather than proficiency levels.[5] For our students, and for the public in general, our actions speak louder than our words.

A Proposed Solution

The solution to this crucial problem is quite straightforward. As recommended by the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies, the profession should establish national proficiency goals and procedures for testing them. The Commission recommends the establishment of a National Criteria and Assessment Program for foreign language study, which should:

> *...establish language proficiency achievement goals for the end of each year of study at all levels, with special attention to speaking proficiency. The National Criteria and Assessment Program would fill a major gap in current language teaching by developing tests based on actual proficiency, rather than by the number of hours spent in the classroom, as is now the case.*[6]

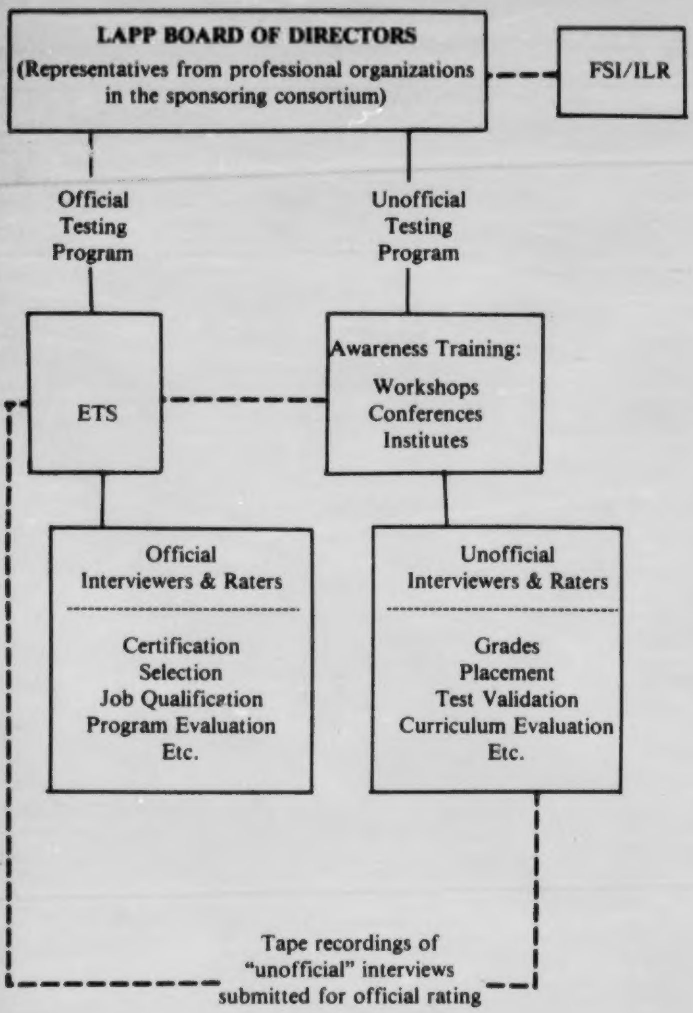
The benefits of this proposal would be manifold. As in most areas of human endeavor, communication is the key to success. The existence of national functional language proficiency standards and evaluation procedures for assessing those standards would, for the first time, provide a common language for communication both within the profession and between the profession and our customers. Not only would it then be possible to make meaningful judgments about curricular options, but also about student achievement, student placement, and program articulation.

A Plan for Action

The need for meaningful national standards of functional language ability are apparent; the benefits would be numerous; but would such a program be a realistic priority? The first steps have already been taken in this direction. Three professional language teaching organizations, ACTFL, MLA, and TESOL have accepted this project as a priority worthy of their support and are forming a consortium to sponsor professional activities in this area. The primary purpose of this consortium will be the monitoring of a Language Achievement and Proficiency Program (LAPP), and discussions are taking place with Educational Testing Service concerning details of how such a program could be administered. The consortium members have also agreed that the most pressing need for language proficiency standards is in the area of oral language skills, and that initial efforts should concentrate on speaking standards.

Fortunately, there exists among agencies of the U.S. government an accepted, standardized system and its rating criteria for evaluating spoken language skills in communicative settings. Commonly referred to as the FSI Oral Interview, it has been used

FIGURE 1


LAPP BOARD OF DIRECTORS
(Representatives from professional organizations in the sponsoring consortium)
FSI/ILR
Official Testing Program
Unofficial Testing Program
ETS
Awareness Training:
Workshops
Conferences
Institutes
Official Interviewers & Raters
Certification
Selection
Job Qualification
Program Evaluation
Etc.
Unofficial Interviewers & Raters
Grades
Placement
Test Validation
Curriculum Evaluation
Etc.
Tape recordings of "unofficial" interviews submitted for official rating

to rate employees' functional language ability for over 25 years. In addition, ETS has been using the same system to test Peace Corps volunteers and bilingual teachers. Much has been written about the FSI oral interview,[7] but perhaps the best capsulized description of the FSI oral interview test has been offered by Lowe:

> *The oral interview is a face valid 10-40 minute face-to-face criterion-referenced proficiency test whose content validity is dependent on adequate elicitation techniques including the use of certain question types, whose results are reported in a global rating, and whose reliability is maintained by comparing the candidate's speech sample in the first instance to the descriptions of linguistic behaviors provided in the government definitions and in the second instance to the linguistic behaviors elaborated on in supporting guidelines for rating, in language-specific grammar grids and level three descriptions, as well as in the sample recorded tests indicative of the various proficiency levels.*[8]

Initial work with the FSI interview in American educational settings indicates that two minor modifications are in order if the system is to be applied as part of LAPP. The first is that the upper categories on the rating scale are simply not attained in classroom training and are not applicable as goals for language training programs. Secondly, the topical descriptions for some proficiency levels may have to be expanded to include the interests and needs of a broader clientele. Neither modification of the present system is overly problematic. Drawing on the expertise of professional organizations, schools, colleges, ETS, and government agencies, the creation of the proposed LAPP is indeed feasible. Figure 1 depicts how such a program might be organized.

The official portion of the organization would be tasked with providing the administrative support necessary to make the testing program available to all those who desire to have their language skills authenticated for purposes such as employment applications, teacher certification, and advanced placement in educational programs. It is envisioned that this portion of the program would be self-supporting, with income derived from test administration fees. This official component could be administered by ETS under the auspices of the ACTFL/MLA/TESOL consortium with the Foreign Service Institute and U.S. Government Interagency Language Roundtable acting as advisers and a source of testing and rating standards.

The unofficial elements of the program would realistically be dependent on grant funding for their success. The key feature of this part of the program would be the teacher training which would carry the concepts of oral proficiency testing and rating standards to the professional as a whole. It is hoped that besides workshops at professional conferences, institutes on language testing might be offered at strategic geographic locations. Interviewers and raters trained at these workshops and institutes would be in a position to initiate the testing of functional oral language at their own institutions for program evaluation, student placement, and other local program purposes. They would also have the opportunity to send recorded tests they have conducted to ETS for official scoring. Ratings received through this channel would help in maintaining standards across all users of the interview testing procedure.

The existence of a national LAPP, even in its initial stage of implementation with a concentration on oral language proficiency standards, would have important implications for the profession. For the first time, horizontal and vertical articulation between language programs would be truly possible. The profession would be able to communicate to students and their prospective employers the skills which could be attained in our educational programs, and a criterion measure would have been established against which other testing procedures could be validated. At the school and classroom level, program objectives would exist around which local programs and contributing objectives could be designed for meaningful program evaluation and curriculum development.

The need for national functional language proficiency standards has been recognized, and the assessment procedures are available. It is hoped that ACTFL will assist the foreign language profession by setting LAPP as a major priority for the coming decade.

NOTES

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2. See Helen L. Jorstad, "New Approaches to Assessment of Learning," in Thomas H. Geno, ed., *Our Profession: Present Status and Future Directions* (Middlebury, VT: Northeast Conference on the

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3. See Albert Valdman and Helen P. Warriner-Burke, "Major Surgery Due: Redesigning the Syllabus and Texts," *Foreign Language Annals*, 13 (1980), 261-70.

4. See Peter A. Eddy, "Present Status of Foreign Language Teaching: A Northeast Conference Survey," in Thomas H. Geno, ed., *Our Profession: Present Status and Future Directions*, (Middlebury, VT: Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1980), pp. 13-59.

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6. James A Perkins, ed., *Strength Through Wisdom: A Critique of U. S. Capability* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1979).

7. Marianne Lehr Adams and James R. Frith, eds. *Testing Kit; French and Spanish* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government, Department of State, Foreign Service Institute, 1979); John L.D. Clark, *Foreign Language Testing: Theory and Practice* (Philadelphia: Center for Curriculum Development, 1972); Randall L. Jones, "The Oral Interview of the Foreign Service Institute," in Bernard Spolsky, ed., *Advances in Language Testing Series I: Some Major Tests*(Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1979), pp. 104-15; Claudia P. Wilds, "The Oral Interview Test," in Randall L. Jones and Bernard Spolsky, eds., *Testing Language Proficiency* (Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1975), pp. 29-38.

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Evaluation – Proficiency Goals, CBTE, National Assessment: How Do They Interrelate?

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The purpose of this paper is to discuss the three topics mentioned in the title, viz., the goals of language proficiency evaluation, competency-based teacher education, and the establishment of national assessment instruments for language proficiency. Before beginning the discussion of these topics, however, I would like to back up a bit and review some of the recent history of second language testing.

It has been said that testing plays a much more prominent role in foreign language teaching than in any other academic discipline. Our professional journals devote a great deal of space to articles on testing. Our professional meetings almost always include papers on this subject, and occasionally devote the entire program to it. Testing has been the focus of some very interesting research projects in second language acquisition during the past few years. And the variety of techniques in measuring achievement and proficiency in languages has grown to the point that it is nothing less than staggering. With the exception of psychology, the rightful home of human measurement, there is probably no other academic field so heavily involved in testing.

This evolution of testing as a legitimate sub-field of language teaching has been a rather decent development. Up until the 1950s, testing probably played about the same role in language teaching as it did in other academic subjects. But in the period which Spolsky refers to as the beginning of the "psychometric-structuralist" trend,[1] we began to breed experts. Influenced on the one side by the branch of psychology known as psychometrics, and on the other side by structural linguistics, whose principal interest was the identification of the basic units of language, a handful of language teachers began to design discrete-point multiple-choice tests, and to evaluate their effectiveness, validity, and reliability. More and more language teachers became interested in testing. The approach was for many years monolithic, based principally on the philosophy of scholars such as Robert Lado. But gradually new ideas evolved, new approaches were suggested, dogma yielded to heresy.

Today we can look at a field that is rich and diversified, interesting and challenging, even a bit intimidating. As we sort our way through the cloze procedure, reduced redundancy testing, the unitary hypothesis, construct validation and more, we must stop and ask if there is any order in this new universe. Do I accept the rhetoric of the experts that I hear and read as gospel truth, or should I wait for a while to see what is discarded and what endures the test of time? Most important, we need to ask the question: To what extent are the current principles and practices of language testing related to the needs of language teaching, and in what areas do we need to exert greater effort?

Evaluation-Proficiency Goals

What is proficiency? It seems to me that as we begin to address the topic of proficiency measurement, we have to have a clear working definition of "proficiency." Charles Fries wrote in 1945 that proficiency was based on the mastery of a number of subunits in the language.[2] He suggested that proficiency of a language was equivalent to the understanding of its parts. In 1961 John Carroll claimed that language *knowledge* and language *facility* were not necessarily the same.[3] He suggested that proficiency in a second language must involve communication as a global and integrative skill, not just an understanding of the definable parts of the language. Going a step further, Hymes and Jakobovits argued that a definition of second language proficiency must include more than simply linguistic competence.[4] They suggested that "communicative competence" should include all dimensions of the communication process. The FSI Oral Interview compares second language proficiency to the proficiency of an educated native speaker, so the criterion here is a model instead of a definition.[5]

As we look at language proficiency testing today, we must come to the conclusion that there are many other definitions – implied as well as stated – of second language proficiency. Should there be a unified operational definition that can serve as a basis for language testing? Perhaps we need to think in terms of several kinds of language proficiency, depending on the purpose of the test.

Testing communicative competence. Because communicative competence has gained so much attention during the past few years, I feel that we have to look carefully at techniques for measuring it. Unfortunately, communicative competence means different things to different people. There are, however, two areas aside from linguistic competence that are usually mentioned in the literature (often only one *or* the other). The first is functional competence. There are three important implications related to the inclusion of functional competence as a criterion of language proficiency. The first is that language is used to accomplish a specific task, e.g., asking directions, purchasing something, engaging in social conversation, placing a want-ad in a newspaper, etc. The second implication is that linguistic competence is not always sufficient to accomplish the task. There are factors such as personality, cleverness, etc. that can also play an important role. And finally, it must be admitted that certain linguistic errors have little if any effect on functional communication. "I please want these shirt buy" is probably as comprehensible to most speakers of English as "I want to buy this shirt," especially in a natural context.

As we broaden our "language for special purposes" programs (e.g., German for business, Spanish for health care), we need to develop better functional testing instruments. A Hispanic patient in the emergency room of a New York hospital isn't going to worry much about the grammatical accuracy of the Spanish of the medic who is attempting to diagnose the problem, as long as they communicate sufficiently well to avoid serious complications.

The concept of the notional/functional syllabus for language teaching offers an exciting challenge for testing. Is it feasible to design tests which impart information, persuade a person to do something, express disappointment? There have been some initial steps taken, but a great deal is yet to be accomplished.

The second area of proficiency that is often associated with communicative competence is sociolinguistic competence. The communicated message should not only be correct, but it should also be appropriate. "No, thank you" may be a linguistically accurate utterance, but it is not an appropriate response to the question, "Is your brother home?" Native speakers become sensitive to social levels and registers in their language, and generally use them accurately. Should non-native speakers be expected to develop a similar ability?

A sociolinguistic component for language testing has been discussed for many years, but unfortunately very little has been done to implement the ideas in actual tests. Some writers have confused integrative tests (e.g., cloze procedure and dictation) with communicative competence tests. While it is true that a test of communicative competence will almost always be integrative, the reverse is not necessarily the case.

I see three possible approaches to the testing of communicative competence. First, one can observe the examinee over a period of time in real-life situations to see how proficient he or she is in initiating a conversation, expressing surprise, turning down an invitation to a party, asking a favor, etc. This approach is very natural but not at all practical. One would have to follow the examinee for many days until the situations spontaneously presented themselves. The second approach is simulation and role-play. One simply asks the examinee, "What would you say to someone after you accidentally step on his foot?" or, "You don't have a watch and you need to know the time. You walk up to a stranger and say...?" or, "Pretend that you are in a hotel and need a room for the night. I'm the desk clerk." The biggest drawback of this approach is that some people—even native speakers—have difficulty playing the role, or even imagining what they would say under certain circumstances. The third possibility is to devise a situation and multiple-choice responses. Hossein Farhady has suggested such an approach.[6] One of the alternatives is linguistically as well as sociolinguistically correct, one is linguistically correct but sociolinguistically inappropriate, the third is sociolinguistically appropriate but linguistically incorrect, and the fourth is both linguistically and sociolinguistically incorrect. The obvious weakness to such an approach is that it measures understanding but not necessarily functional ability.

Criterion-referenced testing. Criterion-referenced testing was a very popular topic of discussion a few years ago, but seems to have lost some of the initial attraction. In language testing it never did get a very secure foothold, although it was treated in a few articles and papers. Perhaps it should be considered more closely. Many functional tests are in certain respects criterion-referenced tests, although they may not have been designed as such. Much of the recent work on criterion-referenced testing by educational psychologists such as Jay Milman have been laregly ignored by language testers.

Oral testing. I am personally very pleased at the growing interest in the testing of oral (speaking) proficiency, not only in the United States, but around the world. The FSI Oral Interview is the best documented approach to measuring speaking proficiency, but numerous other techniques have been developed during the past decade. However, two areas still need more attention: (1) the development of more accurate and reliable scoring procedures; and (2) the development of training material to assist testers in the administration and scoring of oral tests.

Testing listening comprehension. An area of language teaching which has received an increasing amount of attention recently is listening comprehension. Although we have witnessed the development of some excellent listening item types during the past few decades (almost exclusively multiple-choice), we need to take a closer look at other possibilities, especially more direct measures of functional listening proficiency. We should attempt to measure abilities such as detecting sarcasm, impatience, anger; understanding colloquial speech and speech colored by dialectal features; gisting; and making decisions based on spoken utterances. We also need to devise listening tests that can be used at the very beginning stages of language learning.

Research. The language-testing research now going on is very promising. There are many bright scholars engaged in testing research, and we are learning more, not only about testing, but also about language learning. There are, however, some concerns: (1) Some researchers need to be more cautious in the use of research tools (e.g., factor analysis), and in the interpretation of their results. The findings are sometimes misleading, and occasionally outright inaccurate. (2) Graduate students need to receive better training in research methods. The tools are available, but very few graduate programs offer students the opportunity of doing well designed empirical research. (3) More members of the profession need to learn how to interpret basic research findings. The journals are publishing more and more articles that discuss experimental data, but I fear that many of us see statistical information and retreat as quickly as possible. Perhaps some kind of statistical primer for language teachers would be a good beginning. (In fact, an education program for language teachers to help them understand some of the basic concepts of testing [validity, reliability, item analysis, correlation] would not be a bad idea.)

Competency-Based Teacher Education

Background. CBTE is a philosophy of education which is probably not known to a large number of language teachers. It deals with teacher training, almost exclusively at the primary and secondary levels. It is the antithesis of experience-based teacher education, and argues that teachers should not be certified solely on the basis of coursework and knowledge tests, but should be made to demonstrate their competencies in the areas that are critical for their teaching. (The literature speaks of performanced-based and proficiency-based as well as competency-based teacher education. They all seem to refer to the same basic ideas.)

Advantages of CBTE. There are several basic arguments which support the idea of CBTE: (1) Teachers should be made accountable for their services. A CBTE program insures that a teacher can actually teach before being certified. (2) Experience-based programs have vague goals and often bear little relationship to what actually happens in the classroom. (3) Teachers in training have a much clearer picture of what is expected and how they can achieve it.

Problems and issues. CBTE is definitely a polemic issue in education today, and although it is very attractive in principle, it is fraught with problems. The main criticisms are: (1) CBTE is not derived from any research on teaching. Although we might be able intuitively to name the qualities of a good teacher, we have little empirical knowledge about the relationship between teacher behavior and student success. (2) CBTE advocates training instead of education. Professional preparation should emphasize independent, intellectual development, not just instructional skills. (3) If it is possible to identify valid competencies, how can they be tested? (4) There are certain traits of a good teacher (e.g., human relationship, ability to motivate) which are not easily observable. (5) A CBTE program is extremely costly.

CBTE and Foreign Language Teaching. When one thinks of success in foreign language teaching, there are many associated competencies that come to mind (proficiency in the language, teaching grammatical principles, conducting drills, engaging students in oral communication, using audio and visual equipment effectively). But the question remains: What is the correlation between these competencies in a teacher and the success of the students? In John Carroll's study of language majors in U.S. colleges and universities, he found that at the beginning level, the language proficiency of the teacher was not a significant factor.[7] However, in a more recent study by Carroll in which he looked at language teaching in several countries other than the U.S., he found just the opposite.[8] It has been said by many that language teaching is an art, not a science, and that the principal quality of a good language teacher is the ability to motivate the students. (It is not possible to teach a foreign language. It is only possible to facilitate learning it.)

In 1970 Klaus Mueller stated that "what we desperately need is a program for testing the performance of newly trained teachers in terms of student achievement."[9] He went on to suggest that advancement and salary of teachers be based in part on the result of performance tests of their students. The response to Mueller's suggestion was swift and not entirely positive. By using such an indirect approach, i.e., testing the students instead of the teacher, the assumption is that good teachers produce good students and bad teachers produce bad students. The many other variables associated with student achievement (aptitude, attitude, background) are totally ignored.

Perhaps the most ambitious attempt at instituting a foreign language CBTE program was reported by Peter Eddy.[10] Known as the Bellevue-Western Experience, it was an attempt by Washington State to experiment with foreign language CBTE. The project listed competencies in six cognitive areas (the ability to diagnose problems in speaking, listening, reading and writing) and four pedagogical areas (stating goals and objectives, planning instruction, developing attitudes and motivation). Eddy speaks in very positive terms about the experiment, even though it only lasted for one year (as planned).

Summary. Obviously it is very difficult to sort out all of the issues relating to CBTE and come away with a clear decision as to its merits. In foreign language teaching there are basic competencies that relate to good teaching. We need to do more research to see if these competencies do in fact correlate with student success, then devise efficient means of testing them. It is likely that many CBTE programs have died of their own weight, i.e., too many competencies were included. In addition to language skills, there are probably only a few competencies that need to be measured. It seems that a good compromise between experience-based and competency-based teacher education can be reached.

National Assessment

The problem. Lucille Honig and Richard Brod reported a few years ago about the need for employees with language competence in U.S. commerce and industry.[11] They quoted the response of many people they corresponded with and interviewed about this need. The employers used such terms as "fluent in French" or "know Spanish" or "can speak Japanese." This is a good example of how non-standard our perception of language proficiency really is. We often hear about someone who "speaks fifteen languages" or "is fluent in Danish, French, Hungarian, English, Italian and Rumanian." The fact remains that we do not have any common standard by which to judge how well a person can speak or read a second language. One would assume that if a student took two years of college French and received a grade of A in each course, that person would be fairly proficient in French. This is, unfortunately, not necessarily the case.

Some possible solutions. Today there are two standardized language proficiency instruments in the United States that are widely recognized and accepted. One is the set of examinations produced by Educational Testing Service: CEEB for French, German, Spanish, etc.; the National Teachers Examination for French, German, Spanish; and the TOEFL. Although these are proficiency examinations, they cannot provide information that can relate to actual demonstrated proficiency in the language. That is, if a person receives a score of 600 on the German CEEB examination, we have an idea of where he or she might be placed in an advanced German course, but we have little information about how well he or she can communicate in the language. These standardized examinations are very useful for their designed purpose, viz. placement and other academic decisions. They are not, however, well suited for providing information about actual proficiency.

The other nationally recognized proficiency examination is the FSI Oral Interview. It is a performance test, and can provide useful information about proficiency. Anyone who is familiar with the system understands the meaning of a 1 + or 3 on the FSI scale. This instrument was, however, not designed as a general proficiency examination for national standards. It also has certain drawbacks that would make it difficult to use on a large-scale basis.

John Clark and Protase Woodford have suggested the development of a "common metric," which would in fact be an examination designed for the purpose of providing a standard instrument for measuring and reporting language proficiency. The proposal would be similar to the FSI Oral Interview, but would be modified so as to be easier to administer, and would provide more information about proficiency. (The proposal is still in the initial stages, so there are many details yet to be worked out.) This is a step in the right direction. We need to be able to speak of language ability in terms that can be understood and which provide useful information about the individual. It seems that commerce and industry would be willing to define their needs in these terms, and advertise language-essential positions with the stated minimum requirements. A national testing program could then certify candidates who wish to compete for these positions. Such a program already exists in Great Britain (The ARALS Examination) and the Federal Republic of Germany (Zertifikat Deutsch als Fremdsprache).

Conclusion

As we look at the development of language testing during the past decade we cannot help but be impressed. In 1960, John Carroll announced with enthusiasm that an "entire book" was soon to be published on language testing. Today we have shelves full of books on the topic, with more appearing regularly. We need to pause now and make some kind of synthesis from the massive amount of information we have. We need to look at testing as it relates to learning, and especially to the goals of proficiency attainment. As we look to the future we should concentrate more effort on developing accurate and efficient instruments for measuring functional proficiency. If our goal in teaching foreign languages in the schools and colleges is to assist students in learning to communicate in the new language, we will need to do a better job of assessing the extent to which they are reaching this goal.

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Priorities in Classroom Testing for the 1980s

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Within the past twenty years, approaches to foreign language education have undergone some extraordinary changes—changes in learning theory, curricular goals, course materials, and teaching methodology that signal vibrant growth and a renewed professional interest that is both encouraging and exciting. There has probably never been, in the history of language teaching, a more creative or productive era than the present moment. And yet, new problems and challenges arise out of the rapid flow of ideas—problems that require a unified and intelligent response if the profession is to make further progress in the next decade.

In any discipline where the evolution of thought is occurring at an accelerated rate, it becomes more and more difficult with each passing year to reconcile the practices of the past with the promises of the future. The gaps between theory and practice are especially visible in language teaching in the 1980s. But because responsible theory-building is a slow and deliberate process, one must expect new ideas to be evaluated, tested, accepted, and absorbed more slowly than they are produced. In this sense, the gap between theory and practice is a productive one.

It is when new curricular goals, teaching approaches, and course materials are *adopted* that a far more serious gap can occur at the classroom level. Revisions in curriculum and instruction are too often made without concomitant changes in evaluation procedures; in most foreign language classrooms, traditional methods of evaluating progress tend to be conserved, resulting in an ever-widening gap between the verbalization of classroom goals and their measurement. Such a gap can erode or even destroy the effect that a particular curricular revision was meant to produce.

The movement toward developing the communicative proficiency of language learners is a case in point. The professional literature of the past decade has been dominated by the theme of communication as a major goal of instruction, and most foreign language educators agree that it is essential to envision communicative language use as an outcome of language study. Yet few classroom tests reflect communicative objectives to any significant extent, and this incongruence between measurement and goal statements negates the impact of such statements significantly:

> *The nature of...evaluation, that is, the content of the tests and the method by which grades are assigned, reflects more accurately than any lengthy statements of aims and purposes, the real objectives of instruction.*[1]

Jorstad, in her description of the typical language classroom today, states that such classrooms, "to judge from tests and evaluation techniques, are not concerned with communication to any great extent, despite lip service and written objectives to the contrary."[2] This statement reaffirms Bartz's view about testing communication skills:

> *If the message to the students in today's classroom is that they should be able to communicate in the foreign language, then to relay that message, tests which evaluate their ability to communicate must be administered. A close look at testing in today's foreign language classroom, however, reveals quite clearly that such a message is not being conveyed...Instead, the message....is that the real objective of foreign language instruction is the development of the ability to carry out abundant grammatical exercises.*[3]

To further complicate the testing issue, there is widespread disagreement about the *means* of achieving communicative goals, and about the progress one can reasonably expect to make within the real-world limits of a given instructional sequence.[4] What promises can the foreign language teaching profession make for the student of the future? What should language learners be able to do after having invested two or more years of their time in course work at the high school or college level? What do they have to know, in terms of vocabulary, grammar, sound discrimination and production, in order to "know" a language well enough to use it? These are legitimate questions for which we must have answers before a viable testing program can be devised.

The answers to such questions, however, are still the subject of lively debate. Some foreign language educators believe that it is unreasonable to expect students to master the formal grammar of a second language in the limited time available for study, and stress instead the development of "minimal communicative proficiency." Others, fearful that such an approach might produce speakers of "pidgin" forms of the target language, especially if the grammatical content of the coursework is substantially diluted, continue to lay primary stress on the development of linguistic accuracy, hoping communicative facility will follow naturally. Doubts that this latter approach will work, however, have been expressed by many foreign language educators. In discussing the emphasis that has been traditionally placed on tests of linguistic performance, Valette states:

> *...The big fallacy has been the conviction...that the student, by mastering the elements of language (patterns, words, phonemes) would eventually acquire skill in communication. Some students did indeed make the jump, either because they were "natural" learners, or because they had the opportunity to reside in the country where the language was used. Most did not.*[5]

A third group of educators, recognizing the need to help students develop their communicative skills, but reluctant to sacrifice grammatical accuracy, attempt to teach for both communicative and linguistic proficiency. As Schulz very aptly points out, "while a major goal of most college and secondary language programs is communicative ability in the foreign language, there is a justifiable concern with linguistic correctness...we are not just attempting to teach survival communication..., we are also trying to teach literacy in another language."[6] Most teachers would probably subscribe to this statement, yet many fail to achieve this blend of communicative and linguistic concerns in their testing programs.

It is clear that definitive decisions about realistic course goals must be made before the profession can begin in a unified and deliberate fashion to shape the future of testing methodology. Such goal statements will have to be congruent with learner needs and expectations. Obviously language learners will want to achieve some defined level of working proficiency, both in communicative and linguistic terms, in the language of their choice. Likewise, future employers of language students will expect reasonable proficiency levels in both domains. To qualify for government service, for example, a candidate who expects to work overseas must take an oral interview in which linguistic proficiency is a major factor in the assessment of communicative ability. On the one hand, candidates who know a certain amount of formal grammar, but who have learned it "out of context" will have a difficult time achieving a respectable level of competence on the FSI proficiency interview where natural language use is required. On the other hand, candidates cannot expect to score about the 2+ level on the Oral Interview if there are obvious gaps in their control of formal grammar, no matter how fluent and "communicatively competent" they may be.[7]

It is unlikely that business and industry will establish vastly different standards for personnel involved in international programs and overseas assignments. Edgerton, in discussing foreign language as an adjunct skill in the world of work, states that "only *real competence* in a foreign language will have any value."[8] He further maintains that "everyone outside the academic world—in business and in government—is dissatisfied with the language training typical of American schools at all levels...what is needed in the "real world" is real *competence,* not merely credits or semesters accumulated on a transcript."[9] The obvious implication is that grades on transcripts do not reflect "real competence," undoubtedly because the testing methods used in the majority of academic programs have failed to measure the construct.

Given the future language learner's probable self-expectations, as well as the expectations anticipated in the world of work, it seems reasonable to conclude that four-skill language courses in the 1980s will have to be geared toward the achievement of communicative proficiency that includes a reasonable degree of linguistic sophistication. We will have to define clearly and in operational terms what "real competence" is. Once we have defined the construct precisely, we will need to develop better tests to measure it. The next section presents some ideas for achievement testing that are based on the assumption that "real competence" involves a blend of communicative and linguistic proficiency. The ideas for test formats are presented as a possible starting point in an effort to achieve a new focus on "real language" in classroom testing. Undoubtedly, some of the suggestions will need to be reworked, and other, more innovative ideas will be created as we refine our thinking about evaluation of "real competence" in the years to come. It is hoped that the ideas described here will provide the profession with some "food for thought" as we begin the process of revision.

The Case for "Hybrid" Classroom Tests

Assuming that we will accept the challenge to teach for both communicative and linguistic proficiency in the foreign language, we will need to create classroom testing programs that reflect this dual goal efficiently and consistently. It is not enough to simply "tack on" to an existing traditional testing program a few global or integrative items, or to administer tests of communicative skills periodically and average them somehow into a final grade. Such an approach would only serve to reconfirm the impression students already have that learning the phonology, grammar, and vocabulary of a foreign language is a "piecemeal" proposition, only remotely related to "real language" use. A testing program that separates communicative and linguistic criteria into two mutually exclusive sets further emphasizes the somewhat artificial distinction between "communicative" and "linguistic" competence, a distinction that has become fuzzier as the thinking in the field has progressed and become modified during the past decade. As Schulz points out, it is difficult to totally separate the two criteria on tests of communicative skills, "as the linguistic quality of an utterance can influence comprehensibility, the basic communicative criterion."[10] Likewise, tests of "linguistic competence" that have no visible relationship to communicative language use are difficult to justify, in that they separate the two criteria even more artificially.

Rather than trying to achieve a total separation of linguistic and communicative testing approaches, we should be devoting our efforts to the construction of tests in which natural, communicative language is used as much as possible, tested along a continuum of grammatical and/or lexical specificity ranging from the discrete-item to the integrative or global-item type. The underlying, unifying factor on such tests would be the meaningful use of language *in context,* regardless of the level of specificity of individual items or sub-sections. Traditional discrete-point item formats built around random lists of disconnected sentences would have no place on such exams: all items would be imbedded in natural discourse-length contexts rather than in single-phrase or sentence-length frames."[11] The "hybrid" test would "artfully combine grammar and context, structure and situation;"[12] some sections on the test might be global or integrative in nature, while others would require specific, discrete-point answers. The discrete-item sections would enable teachers to test for mastery of specific vocabulary, morphology, and syntax within a naturalistic language context, and provide more specific feedback on recently learned material than is often possible on more global tests. While some integrative or global item types might be included in each unit test or quiz, separate, more extensive oral or written general achievement tests might also be scheduled as part of an overall testing program, enabling the teacher to determine how well students have synthesized all of the linguistic information learned thus far in a given course of study. In this way, communicative language use would underlie the entire testing program, and each individual test, by its very nature, would illustrate to students that mastery of discrete points of grammar and lexicon has a "real world" communicative function.

In the next sections, some initial ideas for contextualizing text items in all four skill areas will be presented, and various levels of grammatical and lexical specificity will be illustrated. The testing formats suggested might be appropriate for beginning and intermediate levels of foreign language instruction in four-skills courses, but some ideas might also be adaptable to other types of courses as curricular options continue to expand in the future.

Sentence Connectedness and the Use of Context

All of the suggestions presented below for testing the four skills, alone or in combination, are based on the principle that test items should present language in naturalistic contexts. Therefore, no single-sentence frames are suggested, unless the set of sentence-length items within a given subsection of the test are connected in some meaningful sequence.

Listening Comprehension Formats

Tests of listening skills are perhaps among the easiest to contextualize; quite a bit of progress has been made in the past few years in the development of ideas for testing "pure" listening comprehension using simulated communicative settings. Bartz, Schulz and Bartz, Linder, and Valette present a variety of suggestions for listening test formats, with item types ranging from those requiring the student to make fairly discrete decisions to those in which global comprehension is measured.[13]

The following are some basic formats for contextualized listening tests, synthesized and adapted from the existing literature on foreign language testing. Item types are listed in the order of their specificity in terms of task demands, with those requiring more discrete answers listed first. All items are based on a passage in the target language, read either once or twice, depending on the level of difficulty of the speech sample and on the short-term memory load associated with the task.

(1) *A passage is read and the student is required to listen for specific lexical or grammatical features imbedded in the selection.* Some sample grammatical features might include listening for cues to tense, gender, number, and the like. In the following example, students listen for cues to tense:

> *Imagine you are sitting in a Paris café and are overhearing snatches of conversations. Can you tell whether the speakers are talking about present or past events? Listen carefully for the verbs in each conversation. If you hear a verb in the present tense, mark column A. If you hear a verb in the imperfect, mark column B. There are X verbs in each conversation.*[14]
>
> (Short conversational exchanges are then read or played on tape. In each conversation, a given number of verbs are imbedded, either in the present or the imperfect. The conversation is played or read once. Then each sentence is read individually and students mark the appropriate column for each verb they hear.)

Although the task is set up so that students listen for discrete morphological cues to tense, the fact that the listening passage is contextualized will mean that the results will be somewhát less diagnostic than those obtained with the isolated sentence-length format. That is due to the fact that natural language usually provides extraneous cues to tense, such as time words or overall situational cues not available in a single sentence. Althnough some diagnostic accuracy is sacrificed, the contextualized format has the advantage of encouraging students to derive meaning from various types of cues, both contextual and structural.

(2) *A passage is read and the student notes down specific semantic information in the native language, follows a map or diagram, responds to preposed questions in the native language, or fills in an incomplete chart, schedule, table, or other type of form provided on the test paper.* Listening items of this type still require students to listen for specific details, but the details recorded are semantic, rather than syntactic, in nature. The following example in French asks students to listen for specific information from the passage and note down the details in English, using the form provided on the student copy of the exam:

Listening passage: The passage describes Monique's apartment near campus, indicating location, price, size and number of rooms, utilities, and the like.

Student's task: Students are asked to listen to the passage and fill in the following form:

MONIQUE'S APARTMENT

A. Location: ______________________________
B. Price: __________
C. Number and type of rooms: ____________________
D. Furnishings:
(Check one) ☐furnished ☐unfurnished
E. Utilities:
(Check one) ☐Monique pays ☐Included in rent
F. Type of utilities (Check all that apply):
☐gas ☐electricity ☐telephone ☐air conditioning

(3) *A passage is read and the student answers a set of true/false, multiple-choice, or completion questions (in English) on the passage content.* Many teachers have used this format for listening and reading tests, but often mix skills by requiring students to answer in the target language. There is nothing wrong with having students answer this way, but the teacher must keep in mind that he or she is testing reading, listening, and sometimes writing skills in an integrative fashion and is losing some diagnostic power in doing so. Mixed-skills test items will be discussed later in this paper.

(4) *A passage is read and the student writes a summary of the message content in the native language.* Items of this type allow students somewhat more freedom in answering, since they can select whatever information they wish to include in their résumés. Grading of these items should be done in an objective fashion, and there are some excellent ideas for scoring such listening tests.[15] Briefly, points can be awarded for each piece of information remembered correctly, with points deducted for wrong information and some type of objective formulae developed for rewarding specificity of detail.

(5) *A passage is read and the student writes or chooses from several options an appropriate title, creates or chooses from options the best "moral" of the story or summary of the main idea, or classifies the passage type in some other global way.* Although the task demands of this type of listening item are clearly global in nature, the scoring procedures are often simpler and more objective than for item format 4, above. Students select the correct answer from options, or write an answer in English, which is judged as correct or incorrect on the basis of some clearly defined criterion.

In choosing or writing contexts for the listening items described above, as well as for reading, writing, speaking, and mixed-skills items to be described in the next sections, the teacher should keep in mind some basic guidelines:

(a) the situation depicted should be relevant and immediately useful to the language learner;
(b) the content reflects the level of sophistication of the students and their knowledge of the world;
(c) the language is, at all times, natural, respecting the "conditions of elicitation"of certain types of structures in natural language use;
(d) answers required of students have "truth value;"
(e) characters used in items are "realistic," in that they have personality and relate to the learner's experience in some way;
(f) items respect sociolinguistic norms;
(g) the language sample is short enough so that students have little difficulty remembering it, but long enough to provide the necessary context.[16]

These principles should be kept in mind as we look at test items in other skill areas in the next sections.

Reading Comprehension Formats

The item formats described for listening comprehension can be easily adapted for reading comprehension, and can range from those requiring students to show mastery of reading vocabulary or grammar (as in format 1, above) to those requiring students to extract specific semantic information from a reading passage (formats 2 and 3) or to synthesize the information in some more global way (formats 4 and 5). An example of a reading task that calls for fairly discrete-point semantic choices to be made is given below; the item type actually combines reading comprehension with an indirect test of writing, since students are choosing the best "filler" for gaps in the discourse from among three options:

> *John, who is visiting Paris for the first time, has just written to his family. Read the following paragraph and circle the word that best completes the meaning of each sentence.*
>
> Paris est une ville sensationnelle et j'arrive à (me souvenir/me dépêcher/me débrouiller) très bien en français. J'ai remarqué que beaucoup de jeunes Français (portent/tiennent/éprouvent) des blue-jeans. J'ai déjà visité tous les (vieux/anciens/chers) monuments de la ville et j'ai l'impression de bien (cacher/couper/connaître) Paris. (etc.)[17]

The decisions in this item are purely semantic, as each of the three choices in each case is structurally identical to the others. In this way, vocabulary can be tested in a more or less discrete-point fashion, but it is embedded in a passage, the comprehension of which is essential for making the correct choice.

Abundant examples of reading items using formats 2 and 3 (again, refer to the listening formats described earlier) can be found in the testing literature. A few examples of more integrative reading comprehension items have been discussed and presented in Oller.[18] One such task requires students to recognize a paraphrase of a stimulus sentence in the target language from among several options. Oller's example is not contextualized, but rather presents the items in single sentence-length frames:

> *Directions:* Choose the sentence which *best* expresses the meaning of the given sentence.
>
> 1. Helen's brother got married when she was eighteen years old.
>   a. Helen's brother got married at the age of eighteen.
>   b. Helen's brother was eighteen years old when she got married.
>   c. When Helen was eighteen, her brother got married.
>   d. When Helen's brother was eighteen, he got married.
>   e. Just eighteen years before Helen, her brother got married.[19]

This item is followed by a similar one about Janet, who was watching her husband paint a chair. In order to avoid the extremely piecemeal approach to language inherent in single sentence-length items of this type, and to further avoid the lack of logical continuation between items, it might be possible to adapt the paraphrasing idea to a more naturalistic language sample. If a whole paragraph were constructed around Helen's family, for example, the reading test might consist of an integral reading passage followed by a series of paraphrasing tasks based on its content. Each item following the passage could be constucted on the model suggested by Oller, but items would all relate to the original passage and would thus represent a more integrated language sample. In this way, the piecemeal nature of the format would be avoided.

Another integrative reading item format is the "logical continuation" item, in which a paragraph-length context is provided, followed by a series of multiple-choice options, one of which follows logically and completes the thought of the paragraph. The best completion can be chosen only when students have thoroughly understood the preceding context.

A third integrative reading comprehension format consists of a series of sentences, all of which go together logically except for one. Students cross out the sentence that does not belong in the total context:

> *Each of the following groups of sentences should form a unified paragraph. Cross out the sentence that does not fit.*
>
> 1. During vacation I visited Paris.
>   I visited a few museums.
>   My brother has a guitar and some records.
>   But my friends stayed in Columbus.
>   I thought the French food was excellent.[20]

An integrative reading task can also be devised by inserting single extraneous words into a prose passage. Students identify the extraneous words to show comprehension of the integral passage content. If both the number of extraneous words correctly identified and the time taken for the task are used as criterion measures, the task can be used to test both reading speed and comprehension.

Comprehension items that require synthesis of various facts in an integral passage can be developed using formats 4 and 5, explained above. Some good examples can be found in the sources cited earlier. An example of an item type where students choose the best summary of the main idea for a paragraph is an item suggested by Oller:

> *Reading: Understanding the Main Idea of a Paragraph*
>
> *Directions:* Read the paragraph and then choose the statement that *best* expresses the central idea.
>
> The obvious method of discovering whether the class has studied its work, and of prodding them on to study in the future, is to ask questions. Written questions with written answers are "tests," "quizzes," or "examinations." Horrible words. My soul sickens at their very sound. I sat through so many hundreds of them...yet I have never been able to think of a substitute and have yet to meet anyone else who has.
>
> (a) Hundreds of examinations have been given in the past.
> (b) Written questions are the best type of examination.
> (c) It is obvious that the class has not studied its lesson.
> (d) Tests are horrible, but no one has found a substitute.
> (e) Students must be prodded to answer the questions on a test.[21]

Care must be taken in writing items of this type (as well as multiple-choice items in general) so that each distractor attracts a student who has only partially understood the passage; only one answer should be clearly correct. Note how, in the example above, elements of the passage are worked into the distractors to attract students who have not comprehended the passage as a unified message. Teachers will need considerable practice in writing integrative comprehension items of this type, and any items they write should be submitted to item analysis as well as to "pilot" testing by colleagues and/or native speakers.

Contextualized Writing and Mixed-Skills Formats

Global writing tasks are not as difficult to contextualize as the more discrete-point item formats, so they will be treated first in this section. Some very fine ideas for testing global skills in writing have been described in the sources cited previously under listening and reading items. Controlled or guided compositions, where students write an integral, discourse-length sample according to question prods, pictorial or verbal cues, or other similar guidelines, have been used in the past as tests of communicative writing ability. As Bartz points out, however, "tests of communicative competence involving writing are somewhat more difficult to score and involve a great deal more subjectivity on the part of the scorer."[22] To overcome this problem, Bartz and others have presented some fairly objective scoring procedures for these types of tests. Global writing items, however, have an additional disadvantage: it is often difficult to elicit discrete vocabulary and grammatical structures on these types of tests, an important factor in achievement testing where the purpose of the test is to verify students' mastery of recently learned material.

In order to supplement the global writing proficiency test, which might be administered periodically during the course of instruction, the following contextualized writing and mixed-skills formats are suggested to allow for the testing of discrete points of vocabulary and grammar on hourly exams and quizzes.

(1) *Sentence cues (Writing).* Items consist of "slash-sentences" or "telegraphic" language: sentence elements are provided as the stimulus and the student must combine them into complete meaningful sentences. To contextualize this type of test format, *each individual stimulus should be connected to the others in the subsection*, either in a logical sequence or in some thematic sense. An example of a thematically contextualized set of slash-sentences is given below:

PREDICTIONS. Mme Touvoir, the famous astrologist, was jotting down notes for her predictions when she was interrupted. Can you recreate her statements using the future tense and adding any necessary words? Follow the model in reconstructing sentences.

Modèle: je/parler/avec/Président des E-U/et il/accepter/idées.

Je parlerai avec le Président des E-U et il acceptera mes idées.

(The item consists of five slash-sentences, such as the one in the model, all of which are thematically related to predictions of the future. Various verbs are included, with different subjects, to provide a thorough review of future tense forms.[23]

(2) *Contextualized partial translation (Reading/Writing).* Valette discusses this item type in single-sentence frames.[24] A contextualized, connected version of discourse length can be created on this model if all the sentences follow one another logically in a conversation or prose paragraph. An example of a contextualized partial translation task is given below. Because of space limitations, only the first paragraph of the text, taken from a second-semester French exam, is reproduced:

> LE MEURTRE DE MME LEROUX. Mme LeRoux, a rich woman who loved to gamble, was killed Thursday night at her home outside of Paris. The police inspector has come to question the guests. Fill in the conversation in French, using the English cues below each statement.
>
> L'inspecteur: __________ à 8 heures quand le meurtre __________? (What were you doing at 8 o'clock when the murder took place?)
>
> Isabelle: Je cherchais ma mère pour lui dire que quelqu'un __________. (I was looking for my mother to tell her that someone had telephoned.)
>
> L'inspecteur: __________ la voix de la personne? (Did you recognize the person's voice?)
>
> Isabelle: Je crois que la même personne a téléphoné __________. (I think the same person called two days ago.)
>
> (etc.)

One advantage of the partial translation format is that the teacher can test a variety of discrete points of vocabulary and grammar efficiently in one single subsection of the test, and the items are embedded in naturalistic discourse. Answers are also quite easy to score. Although some flexibility of answers exists, the range of acceptable responses is quite limited. Because vocabulary and grammar must be recalled, the test items are extremely diagnostic. One disadvantage of the format is the need to insert native language equivalents into the passage, which interrupts its natural flow. The alternative, however, is a cloze-type test, which also has disadvantages of its own.

(3) *Modifications of the Cloze Test: "Gap-Filling Items" (Reading/Writing).* The cloze test has been the subject of much discussion and controversy recently; one problem associated with this type of test is the rather arbitrary nature of the fixed deletion pattern, and the negative reaction of many students to exact-word scoring procedures or to the test in general.[25] To adapt the cloze-type format successfully to foreign language classroom tests, some alternatives are suggested below:

(1) *Non-random deletion procedures:* specific parts of speech are deleted and presented in a list in alphabetical order before the passage, after it, or in a box beside the text itself. In the case of verbs, the list may consist of infinitives, which the student must choose to fit the context and conjugate appropriately.

(2) *Multiple-choice cues:* A modified cloze passage is presented to students in which the gaps are accompanied by multiple-choice options below the text or beside each slot.

(4) *Partial conversations (Reading/Writing).* A somewhat less discrete-point, and more creative, item type is one in which students read half of a conversation and are asked to supply a logical "other half," imagining, for example, what a person on the other end of a phone line must have been saying. This format is especially useful for testing question formation, or, more specifically, testing interrogative pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs.

(5) *Sentence-combining items (Reading/Writing).* Students show their ability to write more syntactically mature language by combining several short sentences into more complicated ones. To contextualize this type of item, all sentences to be combined should form an integrated text when the task is completed.

(6) *Dictation and Variations (Reading/Writing/Listening).* Various opinions have been expressed about the value of dictation as an integrative skills test. Oller is perhaps the principal proponent of this type of test format, though there are many other educators who support its use in classroom testing.[26] One advantage of the dictation is that it can combine many discrete points of grammar and vocabulary in natural-language contexts, especially if all of the dictated sentences follow one another logically to form a whole paragraph. Savignon is continuing the research effort in this area in an ongoing study to determine if the results of dictation tests correlate with other measures of communicative proficiency, such as the oral interview.[27] The results of this research should prove useful in the development of integrative writing tests in the future.

Variations on dictation might include some of the following ideas:

(1) Dictation of questions in the target language, for which students then write target-language answers;
(2) Partial or "spot" dictations, where students fill in gaps on their written copy of the passage;
(3) Dictation of sentences in random order, all of which, when rearranged, form a logical paragraph or conversation;
(4) Dictation of directions for arriving at a destination, after which students follow the dictated directions on an accompanying map;
(5) Dictation of a passage, after which students answer comprehension questions related to the dictated material.

All of the variations on dictation suggested above require students to process the language they have taken down verbatim for its content. Scoring of these items may become complicated, especially if one needs to avoid "double jeopardy" for items missed in both the dictation and in the follow-up task. These and other testing problems need to be addressed as new communicative and situationalized formats are developed in the future.

(7) ***Translation and translation cues (Writing).*** **One viable option for tests of writing skills is still the translation task; though some foreign language educators are uncomfortable with the use of the native language that this entails, one can argue that translation, at least at the beginning levels, represents a major type of cognitive activity associated with language learning. Some of the advantages of translation include the need to *recall* appropriate structures and vocabulary and the need to join these individual elements of language into meaningful thoughts.**

Traditionally, translation tests have consisted of random lists of sentences to be rendered into the native or target language, although one occasionally runs across tests where whole passages are used. What we are suggesting here is that translation tests be used in some contextualized way, and that the task require students to go from the native language into the target language exclusively.

In order to make translation serve communicative language goals, the text to be translated ought to be representative of communicative language use. One might be required to write a letter in the foreign language, for example, imagining that a friend wanted to write to a foreign penpal and requested help.

An alternative to word-for-word translation is the *translation cue*. An example of a set of translation cues follows:

> *Write the following dialogue between A and B in French.*
> *A is complaining about his French course.*
>
> A: Tell B that your French professor is impossible! Say he/she makes you work too hard.
>
> B: Ask A if he/she makes you repeat all the words in the vocabulary.
>
> A: Say that you have to talk, and when talking in front of the class you often make mistakes.
>
> B: Tell A that it is in making mistakes that one learns. Ask if he/she will receive a good grade.[28]

Translation cues might also be used as a follow-up activity to another test item. For example, the following cues were given as a follow-up to the test item on p. 51:

> AIDONS L'INSPECTEUR DE POLICE. Suppose the chief inspector has asked you to question a few of the house guests at the LeRoux mansion. Formulate in French six appropriate questions to find out the following information. Imagine you're interviewing the butler first.
>
> Ask the butler:
>
> 1. ...how long he has been working here.
> 2. ...if he knows the guests personally.
> 3. ...where he worked three years ago.
> 4. ...what he was doing while the guests were playing cards.
>
> etc.

The translation item is integrative, in the sense that many elements of the foreign language are synthesized to complete the task. It is also extremely diagnostic, and enables the teacher to pinpoint those structures and vocabulary items that students have not yet mastered. When done well, translation tasks can be "seeded" with many discrete points of grammar and lexicon and represent an efficient way to test these points in context.

Formats for Oral Testing

One of the most difficult types of tests to create, schedule, and grade is the oral test. Suggestions for oral testing have been described in Schulz and Bartz, Valette, and Linder, with descriptions of possible scoring procedures.[29] One of the professional priorities in classroom testing in the 1980s is the development of good tests of oral proficiency that provide a vehicle for testing global communicative skills while enabling teachers to gather diagnostic information at the same time. Workshops and conferences devoted to this challenging testing problem should be funded and scheduled as soon as possible. Nowhere else in our classroom testing programs can we get across to students the message that communicative language use is a major goal of instruction.

At the University of Illinois, Boylan has developed a series of oral test formats for Spanish classes at the beginning and intermediate levels which include several types of communication.[30] In the fourth semester Spanish course, for example, students take an oral test in which they engage in both monologue and conversational exchanges. Students randomly draw two or three topics from a set of topic cards (related to topics discussed in class). Each topic card has a set of opinion questions as a guide for the monologue portion of the exam. After the student gives an impromptu monologue on one of the topics chosen, the instructor asks follow-up questions based on the information provided by the student. A second part of the oral test consists of an interview, in which the student poses questions for the instructor, based either on one of the other topic cards chosen initially, or on a role-play situation.[31]

The oral test suggested by Boylan is scored with a rating sheet simliar to that used by the Foreign Service Institute, but adapted for the college classroom. Ratings for fluency, structure, vocabulary, comprehensibility, and comprehension are assigned on the basis of the speech sample taken.

It might be useful to develop an instrument that would provide diagnostic feedback from the type of oral test described above. Perhaps a set of codes could be used during the interview to note strengths and weaknesses, or the interview could be taped and specific notes taken at a later time. This latter procedure has been used by examiners in French (and probably in the other languages as well) at FSI in an effort to verify the rating assigned for each category of the test for candidates who are interested in feedback.

Some Conclusions and Recommendations

In order to close the gap that now exists between stated course goals and evaluation techniques in our nation's classrooms, a major commitment will have to be made in the next few years to improving the measurement of foreign language skills at the classroom level. There is no doubt that our present measurement instruments are sadly deficient. As Woodford points out, "many foreign language teachers become defensive about their own homemade tests because they themselves know they are often flawed instruments." He adds, however, that "this is in no way the fault of the teacher, but rather of the training programs that have neglected this important area."[32] If we examine training programs at the university level, we will find, he states, that testing courses are devoted almost exclusively to statistical matters, and rarely to practical test development problems. In addition, "specific courses in foreign language testing are extremely rare."

The suggestions for achievement testing presented in this paper are offered as a point of departure for further discussion as we search for viable ways to incorporate real language use into our day-to-day measurement of language competence. But suggestions such as these are surely not enough. The profession will have to devote a good deal more time and creative energy to the problem if we hope to make some headway in the near future.

A list of professional priorities for classroom testing might well include the following:

(1) The organization of national conferences and/or workshops to develop operational definitions of "real competence" in a foreign language, taking into account the real-world limitations inherent in learning a foreign language outside of the target culture;

(2) The organization of follow-up conferences and workshops to devise model testing techniques that incorporate natural communicative language in tests of specific, course-related goals, both linguistic and communicative;

(3) The planning of regional and local inservice training workshops that would present these testing models to as large a

number of classroom teachers as possible, and would help them develop measurement instruments to suit their own specific course materials;

(4) Recommendations for the development of university-level courses in foreign language testing methods and the inclusion of such courses among the requirements for teacher certification;

(5) Recommendations for continuing research studies relating to the testing techniques developed in (2) above to obtain reliability and validity data, and to improve on the ideas as new knowledge is generated;

(6) Recommendations to textbook publishers to include model foreign language tests with their package of course materials.

These recommendations parallel some of those made by Woodford in his recently published "plan for action" for foreign language testing.[33] We cannot afford to continue to ignore the problems we have in this domain. The means by which we evaluate foreign language skills will determine, to a large extent, the success of foreign language programs in the future. These concerns should form the very core of our professional priorities in the years ahead.

NOTES

1. Rebecca M. Valette, "Developing and Evaluating Communication Skills in the Classroom," in E. Joiner and P. Westphal, eds., *Developing Communication Skills* (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1978), p. 90.

2. Helen L. Jorstad, "New Approaches to Assessment of Language Learning," in Thomas H. Geno, ed., *Our Profession: Present Status and Future Directions* (Middlebury, VT: Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1980), p. 124.

3. Walter H. Bartz, "Testing Communicative Competence," in R. Schulz, ed., *Teaching for Communication in the Foreign Language Classroom* (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Co., 1976), pp. 52-53.

4. Albert Valdman, "Error Analysis and Grading in the Preparation of Teaching Materials," *The Modern Language Journal*, 59(1975), 422-26; Helen P. Warriner, "High School Foreign Language Texts: Too Much Between the Covers to Cover," *Foreign Language Annals*, 11(1978), 551-58.

5. Valette, *op. cit.*, p. 90.

6. Bartz, *op. cit.*, p. 53.

7. This conclusion is based on the author's personal experience with the FSI Oral Interview in French, obtained in a training workshop for college teachers at the Foreign Service Institute in Arlington, VA.

8. Mills F. Edgerton, "Competence in a Foreign Language: A Valuable Adjunct Skill in the Eighties," in Thomas H. Geno, ed., *Our Profession: Present Status and Future Directions* (Middlebury, VT: Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1980), p. 79.

9. *Ibid.*, p. 84.

10. Bartz, *op. cit.*, p. 58.

11. John Bondaruk, James Child, and E. Tetrault, "Contextual Testing," in R. Jones and B. Spolsky, eds., *Testing Language Proficiency* (Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1975).

12. William R. Slager, "Creating Contexts for Language Practice," in E. Joiner and P. Westphal, eds., *Developing Communication Skills* (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1978).

13. Bartz, *op. cit.*; Renate A. Schulz and Walter Bartz, "Free to Communicate," in Gilbert A. Jarvis, ed., *Perspective: A New Freedom*, The ACTFL Review of Foreign Language Education, Vol. 7 (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Co., 1975); Cathy Linder, ed., *Oral Communication Testing: A Handbook for the Foreign Language Teacher* (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Co., 1977); Rebecca M. Valette, *Modern Language Testing*, 2nd ed. (New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, 1977).

14. Adapted from Valette, 1977.

15. Schulz and Bartz, Bartz, Valette, and Linder, *op. cit.*

16. Slager, *op. cit.*, pp. 74-75.

17. Gilbert A. Jarvis, T. Bonin, D. Corbin, and D. Birckbichler, *Invitation* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1979).

18. John W. Oller and J.C. Richards, eds., *Focus on the Learner: Pragmatic Perspectives for the Language Teacher* (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1973).

19. *Ibid.*, p. 19.

20. Diane W. Birckbichler, personal communication.

21. Oller, *op. cit.*

22. Bartz, 1976, p. 59.

23. Jarvis *et al.*, *op. cit.*

24. Valette, 1977.

25. Helen Jorstad, personal communication.

26. Oller, *op. cit.*

27. Sandra J. Savignon, personal communication.

28. Alice C. Omaggio, *First Year French: Manuel du professeur* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1977).

29. Schulz and Bartz, Valette, and Linder, *op. cit.*

30. Patricia C. Boylan, personal communication.

31. Some good ideas for role-play are provided in Sidney N.J. Zelson, "Skill-Using Activities in the Foreign Language Classroom," in E. Joiner and P. Westphal, eds., *Developing Communication Skills* (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1978).

32. Protase E. Woodford, "Foreign Language Testing," *The Modern Language Journal*, 64(1980), 97-102.

33. *Ibid.*

Priorities: Evaluation

The following recommendations on priorities on evaluation are based on position papers prepared by Ray T. Clifford (Defense Language Institute), Randall Jones (Brigham Young University), and Alice Omaggio (University of New Mexico), with reaction papers by Renate Schulz (University of Arkansas) and Richard Brod (Modern Language Association), and discussions with John L.D. Clark (Center for Applied Linguistics).

1. a. Develop detailed, agreed-upon definitions of linguistic competence, communicative competence, sociolinguistic competence for both proficiency and achievement testing.
   b. Task force meeting of specialists in psycholinguistics, linguistics, language testing, representatives of language organizations.
   c. Unified statement, available for broader review.
2. a. Establish realistic language learning goals by stages of achievement and synthesizing linguistic, communicative, sociolinguistic aspects.
   b. Task force meeting(s) of above, plus others (e.g., private enterprise representatives, language teachers, and supervisors). Participants to have reviewed results of first task force meeting.
   c. Goal statements available for wide distribution and discussion.
3. a. Develop summative (PROFICIENCY) assessment measures, covering outcome goal developed in (1) and (2).
   b. Development work, as required, by testing organizations, with *standing advisory body* to provide input and assistance.
      - Develop and pilot-test prototype materials and procedures
      - Comprehensive review of materials and procedures, suggestions for modification
      - Develop and validate final instruments.
   c. An inventory of proficiency testing instruments/procedures exemplifying functional proficiency goals.
4. a. Develop model procedures and instrumentation for classroom achievement testing.
   b. Development work, as required, by testing groups, with detailed input by advisory body, high level of teacher, publisher, etc. representation on advisory group.
      - Develop and pilot-test prototype
      Materials and procedures
      - Develop item-type banks
   c. Teacher-oriented, highly usable achievement testing protocols and materials.
5. a. Disseminate information and use guidelines for both proficiency measures and achievement testing materials.
   b. Informational and training packages, testing workshops. Development and dissemination of normative and other use—information of all types.

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RESEARCH

Research and Design

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In this century we have witnessed great advances in medicine, physics, biology, agriculture, and have as a result placed unquestioning faith in the empirical methods used by scientists in these disciplines. But in our own field of foreign language learning and teaching, adoption of research methods of the physical and natural sciences has not led to valuable insights for developing highly effective materials and methods. Human behavior is simply too complex. As of the present, we do not have theories that adequately explain how languages work, how we learn them, and how we can best teach them. Nevertheless, in view of the immensity of the task, we have made a great deal of progress. In this paper I am going to discuss from a broad, nontechnical point of view three research procedures we should follow in the coming decade to gain knowledge for improving foreign language teaching.

Experimental Research

In the past the single variable design has probably been the most widely used design in experimental research. If the investigator is interested in comparing two different teaching methods, for example, subjects are randomly assigned to experimental and control groups in which a "new" method (the independent variable) is tried out in the former group and the "traditional" method is used in the latter. The experiment is conducted, and scores (the dependent variable measured by a test) are compared by appropriate statistical analysis to determine which method was most successful in promoting learning.

This kind of design, however, has failed to live up to expectations, since other factors (extraneous or intervening variables) such as I.Q. of subjects, differences in foreign language proficiency and aptitude, motivation, and attitude of subjects toward the teacher can bias results. While it is doubtful that these variables can ever be completely controlled, attempts to obtain better control over them have resulted in the development of factorial designs which consider the joint effects of two or more independent variables.

Advantages of using these more powerful designs are evident in recent studies on the effects of visuals on foreign language learning. In one such study, Omaggio was interested in determining how certain types of visual contexts would affect reading comprehension.[1] A 6 x 3 factorial design was chosen with the first independent variable consisting of six pictorial situations that accompanied the reading of a story. Three textual contexts comprised the second independent variable: (1) students enrolled in second quarter beginning French classes were exposed to the various pictorial conditions and read the story in French; (2) another group read the story in English; and (3) students in the third group did not have any text but were asked to respond to the picture stimuli. The dependent variable, reading comprehension, was measured by a recall score from a résumé written in English and marked for the number of facts and legitimate inferences students made about the story and a recognition score obtained from an objective test in English over content.

Significant interactions between the independent variables indicated that pictorial contexts were related to the conditions under which the story was read. For those who read the French version, the best visual context was the prethematic one which depicted a scene from the beginning of the story. Pictorial conditions made no difference for the students who read the story in English, indicating that "for a relatively easy text in the native language, pictorial aids may be superfluous."[2] Those with no texts were unable to piece together any significant number of details. The prethematic picture, according to Omaggio, must have served as an "advance organizer of a general nature," giving the French students a point of reference against which they could check the accuracy of their comprehension.[3]

Proceeding in part from Omaggio's study, Mueller investigated the effects of visuals on listening comprehension.[4] He hypothesized that visuals would also serve as "advance organizers activating relevant aspects of stored memory, thereby providing a framework within which the passage could be understood."[5]

Mueller chose a variation of factorial design that would take into account the joint effects of three independent variables on the dependent variable, which in this case was measured by a free-recall summary of the foreign language passage in English. In two experiments that were run, the first independent variable was the availability of contextual image. That is to say, a picture portraying the general situation of the listening comprehension passage was shown before the passage, after it, or not at all. Intact beginning college German classes constituted the second independent variable, and the third was aptitude of subjects as determined by grades in the German course immediately preceding the experiments.

Subjects in the second experiment had taken four to six semesters of high school German, while those in the first had studied little or no German in high school. Thus, the subjects in the second experiment were as a group much more proficient in German than those in the first. Procedure consisted of having the subjects listen to a short passage under one of the three pictorial conditions. Then the subjects wrote a seven-minute summary of the passage. These were scored according to the number of correct pieces of information and logical inferences they contained.

Results were mixed. In the first experiment, those students who had seen the visual scored significantly higher than those who had not. High aptitude students performed better than their low aptitude counterparts. There were no significant interactions between the classroom variable and visual context, for results were consistent across classroom levels. In the second experiment, the visual-before and visual-after scores were higher than the other scores, but not significantly so, probably due to significant interactions between variables. Upon closer examination, it appeared that high aptitude students in the no-visual group scored higher than those who had seen the picture. Mueller speculates that the picture may have been ineffective for students with initially high foreign language proficiency and aptitude, which also supports Omaggio's contention that when a foreign language task is relatively easy, visuals may be of no consequence.

Since little research has been directed toward the effects of visual aids on foreign language learning, these studies should serve as catalysts for replication. This is especially true since preliminary results seem to indicate that such aids have a positive effect on foreign language comprehension if the students' level of competence is not high to begin with. Visuals are usually haphazardly selected for texts and other instructional materials, and no attempt is made to relate them to the language task they are supposed to supplement. More research might help improve the situation. Replication would also be relatively easy, for these experiments did not involve extensive, complicated treatments.

Another strong point of the above studies is that they are limited enough in scope so that the reader can trust their conclusion. Much experimental research dealing with comparison of teaching methods, on the other hand, has been heavily criticized for attempting to test hypotheses that are too broad and vague. Still, methodological research should not be discouraged, especially since it often deals with questions that are of immediate and practical concern to the foreign language teacher. If the method or instructional technique to be tried out can be clearly defined, factorial designs allow for good control. Another procedure for strengthening design in such research is using analysis of covariance to test results.

As an example, a recent study was conducted at the University of Georgia to compare two approaches (methods in a limited sense) for teaching writing skills to intermediate French, German, and Spanish students at the college level.[6] Intact classes had to be used, since university scheduling procedures prohibited random assignment of subjects to treatments. Instead, classes were randomly assigned to treatments, and teachers to groups. A series of pretest scores and grade point averages of subjects served as covariates. There were two levels of treatment (sentence-combining techniques versus traditional writing practice) for the first independent variable, and three levels of language (French, German, and Spanish) constituted the second. The dependent variable was measured by tests that were scored for grammatical complexity and fluency in the use of various syntactic patterns.

Testing for posttest differences between groups was done by analysis of covariance which statistically compensated for initial differences between groups. Thus, if pretest scores were higher for a particular group, posttest scores of that group were lowered; if pretest scores were lower, posttest scores were raised accordingly. The experimental group scores were significantly higher, and, in general, interactions between independent variables were not significant, indicating that the effect of sentence-combining techniques on writing development was consistent across languages.

The studies cited above fall under the general heading of experimental research, since they involve manipulation of an independent variable within the framework of a prescribed design. Another closely related category of research is descriptive in nature, for it is primarily designed to obtain information about the current status or state of a phenomenon, or to describe what exists with respect to variables or conditions in a situation.[7] There are several types of studies that fit this classification, and the ones that have been traditionally associated with investigating second language learning are: (1) case studies, usually intense investigations of individuals' development in language proficiency; (2) longitudinal studies, in which the sample of subjects is studied over an extended period of time with change per se being the main object of investigation; and (3) cross-sectional studies, where subjects from various levels are studied at the same point in time to determine characteristics of language use of the typical or average subject.[8]

In a recent study on error analysis, Politizer provides us with a good example of descriptive research.[9] In the past, most studies in this area dealt with classification and ordering of errors for the purpose of gaining information about second language learning. Politzer, though, has turned the question around to determine how native speakers themselves perceive and evaluate errors. Employing an interesting methodology, he first isolated errors commonly made by English speakers in phonology, case endings, verb morphology, gender, word order, and vocabulary. Sentence pairs in which one type of error was contrasted with another were recorded on tape, and a group of native German teenagers was asked to judge each sentence pair and indicate which error they considered most serious and offensive. Analysis of results consisted in part of testing the relative severity of error types by chi-square. Overall trends obtained from a rank ordering indicated that these particular German subjects considered vocabulary errors to be the worst, followed by mistakes in verb forms, word order, gender confusion, phonology, and case endings.

In general problems with vocabulary items caused by confusion within German (Sein *Weib* ist eine nette Dame), using a false cognate (Wenn er das erfuhr, *bekam* er ganz wutend), and lexical interference with English (Er hat viele Feinde, weil er doch zu ausgesprochen ist) were the most grating on German ears, while many of the grammatical mistakes (e.g., wrong case endings) that we spend so much time correcting and that count so heavily on tests were of minor concern to the native speakers.[10]

Descriptive research as in the above example can contribute to our knowledge about second language learning, and if promising lines of investigation are pursued with follow-up studies, cumulative results can assist us in making sounder pedagogical decisions. Too often, though, researchers—especially those doing descriptive research—draw conclusions that are premature and not warranted from the evidence obtained. Overly extravagant claims have only had the effect of turning teachers off, and they are the ones that stand to gain the most from research.

Ethnographic Research

A deeper reason for dissatisfaction with research may be due to what some critics view as inherent weaknesses in its theoretical foundation. In traditional research, the investigator operates from a position of objectivity and seeks to discover, verify, and identify casual relationships between variables by testing hypotheses that have been stated before the experiment has been undertaken. Sampling and data gathering procedures operate within the framework of predetermined experimental designs such as those presented in Campbell and Stanley's monograph, the main purpose of which is to guard against contamination of results by extraneous variables.[11] Measurement is carried out by tests and instruments that have also been chosen before the experiment, and behavior and learning are described in terms of quantitative data. Analysis usually employs a variety of statistical procedures based on concepts of mathematical probability. The main goal of traditional research is the discovery of general, universal laws of human behavior that are free of specific contextual restraints and are, therefore, applicable and generalizable to other situations.

Critics of the traditional approach point out that behavior is significantly influenced by the setting in which it occurs. Indeed, one "cannot understand human behavior without understanding the framework within which subjects interpret their thoughts, feelings, and actions."[12] Thus, a paradoxical situation has developed; for although human action and experience are context-dependent and can only be understood in their contexts, "context stripping is a key feature of our standard methods of experimental design, measurement, and statistical analysis."[13] In traditional research, subjects are often removed from their natural social setting when they are assigned to experimental and control groups. Methods of measurement are aimed at isolating variables from their personal and social contexts, and analysis consists of reducing complex human phenomena to sterile numbers.[14]

Playing down or ignoring altogether the role of cultural and social contexts can result in an incomplete understanding of the human behavior under investigation. This is why, for example, so many of the studies of pupil-teacher interaction where methods of analysis using predetermined categories of behavior to establish profiles of pupil-teacher interaction have failed to provide us with any definitive knowledge. Additional contextual aspects such as subject matter, physical setting of the classroom, personality of the teacher, student opinions, and interpretation of teacher behavior must also be taken into account before a complete picture of this extremely complex phenomenon can be obtained.[15]

In another example, Saville-Troike underscores the importance of social milieu in the relative effectiveness of different language teaching methodologies.[16] In a California study, English as a second language was taught to five- and six-year-old Spanish speaking students from families of farm laborers. The pedagogical approach in the project involved extensive use of games and physical activities, and the boys learned significantly more English. Boys in this society were generally given a lot of freedom while their parents were working, and at school they were extroverted, enthusiastic, and uninhibited about trying out new games. The girls, on the other hand, were confined to the house and responsible for taking care of their younger siblings. At school they were shy and reluctant to enter into game-playing situations. According to Saville-Troike, sexual differences in learning English could have been due to inappropriate teaching methods which failed to consider sociocultural and psychological aspects of the subjects' environment.

A possible solution to these problems is to turn to methodologies that fall under the rubric of ethnographic or qualitative research. These models have enjoyed a long tradition of success in anthropology and sociology. They rely on such data-gathering techniques as participant observation, surveys, in-depth interviews, and case studies. Research is conducted in the field, that is to say, in the natural setting. Rather than framing hypotheses deductively before the study, hypotheses are formulated inductively from the data itself with the purpose of reconstructing reality from the perspective of the subject. Emphasis is on theory discovery rather than theory verification. Schatzman and Straus underscore flexibility, another key element in this research approach:

> *The field method is not an exclusive method in the sense, say that experimentation is. It is more like an umbrella...beneath which any technique may be used for gaining the desired information...In field research one can survey a sample of a large population to obtain different kinds of leads on the situation which is also being examined up close. Case studies of persons, occupations, and other classes of persons or events may be of help, too. Though each technique has its own logic and can be used exclusively, there is no rule which forbids using a mixture of them in field work.*[17]

Although research from an ethnographic perspective has been undertaken to study certain aspects of education such as program evaluation and social processes and structures within the institution of the school, very little as of yet has been done in our field. One exception to this is work on learning strategies of foreign language students. In a recent article, Hosenfield points out that too much of our thinking about the instructional process has centered on the teaching act.[18] This is putting the cart before the horse, however, for students themselves ought to "provide the first input instruction in the form of learner strategies, and teaching should consist of adapting to these strategies."[19] To discover students' learning strategies, Hosenfeld has outlined a type of case-study approach that utilizes unstructured interview techniques to encourage students "to think out loud" about how they completed certain exercises.[20] From the resulting information, strategies used by both skillful and unskillful learners could then be isolated and teaching procedures and techniques developed that would be appropriate for both groups.

This approach has several advantages over the traditional quantitative procedure of using an objective questionnaire to obtain information about learning strategies. First, quantitative methods aim at presenting an overall, general picture of a group by means of measures such as averages and standard deviations. Thus, characteristics of individuals in the group are lost or levelled out. But in a case study approach these individual differences are preserved and serve to give a three-dimensional picture of the phenomenon under study. Cognitive processes can probably be studied more accurately when students are allowed to tell in their own words how they tackle a particular foreign language task than if information were elicted by an objective questionnaire containing predetermined categories and responses. Finally, the approach has a built-in flexibility or dynamic quality that allows the researcher to change the line of questioning in response to how the student replies.

Other areas that could be studied by ethnographic techniques would be student response to literature and methods for teaching it. (The fact that there is such a dearth of research in these areas may be due to the difficulty of finding appropriate methods of investigation.)

Problem-Solving Research

Procedure for the third research direction is exemplified in the first-year German program recently developed at the University of Texas where investigators were concerned about high attrition rates in enrollment and especially about the large percentage of students who dropped out after one semester.[21] Proceeding from the belief that student dissatisfaction was at the root of the problem, they hypothesized that "more efficient and successful second language learning results when students are trained in listening and reading comprehension before practice in production."[22] Instructional activities and materials were designed to promote comprehension. In the first four weeks of the initial semester, students received practice in Asher's strategy of physical response to oral commands. At first speech production was not required, and then it was encouraged only on a voluntary basis. German was the exclusive language of communication both in class and on tests and syllabi.

After five weeks, reading was introduced with the emphasis on reading for main ideas in the text. To facilitate development of these skills, various imaginative activities were devised. In one, for instance, involving a dialogue in which a stranger in a German city asked for directions, students were required to draw a map of the city and indicate the relationships of various buildings to each other. Other techniques were developed to train students to recognize loan words and cognates in new vocabulary items.

Grammar and written assignments were not neglected but were stressed as they related to development of oral and reading comprehension. Evaluation of homework and written assignments was based on the distinction between global and local errors. That is to say, if a sentence was readily understandable, morphological errors were considered of secondary importance.

An interesting approach was taken with grammar presentation as students progressed into the second semester. They were asked to assess their own progress and work out a plan for independent work in grammar learning. According to the investigators, students found at this point "rote learning of principal parts of verbs, mastering the rules of German word order, and learning idiomatic prepositional phrases" to be of most benefit.[23]

Evaluation of the program took into account enrollment figures, student attitude, and achievement on the reading and listening comprehension portions of the MLA test. A comparison of enrollment figures showed that in the two years that the program had been in effect 22 to 28 percent of the students taking the first semester failed to sign up for the second, whereas in the old program the attrition rate was 45 to 47 percent. At least 75 percent of the students responded positively to questions of whether or not the new program gave them a feeling for contrasts and similarities in German and American culture, and they said that their interest in German and the German language had been substantially increased. Their ratings of these German courses showed significant increases as measured by a standardized course evaluation instrument regularly used at the university. Student results on the MLA test were also encouragingly high—on both listening comprehension and reading, students scored at least 18 percentile points above national norms. And perhaps even more important, students in the new program had confidence in their newly acquired foreign language facility, for their perception of their own progress in reading for main ideas and understanding everyday spoken German was high.

This study is not an experiment in the technical sense of the word, nor was it intended to be, although procedures commonly used in statistical research are employed to analyze results. It leans more toward the type of research based on the ethnographic model mentioned above. The strength of the study is its usefulness, for it was designed to solve a problem that concerns all of us—how to stem the tide of rising attrition rates—and the instructional techniques and organization procedures that were successful in accomplishing this here can be used by many of us who are in the same situation.

Conclusions

There is no particular line of research that is superior to the others. The approaches discussed above all have their drawbacks. Traditional experimental methods have produced mixed results and have not led to the discovery of universal laws. This is perhaps due to a lack of extensive, carefully controlled, replication studies. But the tendency of traditional research to qualify human behavior in numbers and to disregard contextual and environmental factors must also have played a role in the disappointing results. Research based on ethnographic models has not been fully developed, so it is too soon to draw any conclusion. A word of caution is in order here, for ethnographic methods can be very easily abused. As one writer points out, ethnographic research is not the same as journalistic reporting and anecdotal story-telling where someone walks into a setting, chats with a few people, and jots down impressions. Both methods can supplement each other and be equally intergrated into many studies. The third category of research, a kind of program development for solving particular problems, suffers from the drawback of being related to a specific situation and, thus, not generalizable. Nevertheless, it represents a valid line of investigation that can further knowledge as long as the reader is fully aware of the details of the setting. In the final analysis, if procedures are chosen to fit the particular problem, any of these three approaches can be fruitful avenues to insights about foreign language learning and teaching.

NOTES

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21. Janet King Swaffar and Margaret S. Woodruff, "Learning for Comprehension: Focus on Reading, A Report on the University of Texas German Program," *The Modern Language Journal*, 62 (1978), 27-32.

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Action Research versus Needed Research for the 1980s*

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The Case Against Action Research

It would seem that any activity whose principal purpose is a better understanding of the teaching-learning process ought to be welcomed, supported, and implemented by the practitioners who are responsible for planning and guiding the teaching-learning process. It is clear, however, that many practitioners do not view educational research in this positive light. Stern has characterized the attitudes of many instructors toward research as one of total negativism:

> One has to recognize that there are a number of practitioners who don't like research and are even hostile to it. Some teachers feel threatened by it; they regard it as an attack on the value of their work as practitioners. Some regard it as escapism from the real issues. Some teachers and administrators expect too direct and simple answers to their questions and are disappointed when research gives differentiated and equivocal answers. Some people attack the researchers when the results do not please them.[1]

It is possible that such attitudes may simply be a manifestation of the animosity that practitioners in many professions feel toward researchers in their field. Educators, however, can be quite specific about their dissatisfaction with research. They can, for example, point to the concept of action research as a prime example of what can be viewed as a broad failure of educational research—an idea that appears logical, important, even elegant on paper, but which is virtually nonexistent in the behavior of educators. More unfortunately, the term has become a euphemism for faulty research done by persons who lack the necessary competence to do it. Rarely, however, is that incompetence acknowledged. How many of us have heard graduate students or even experienced researchers propose faulty research and then respond to critiques of it with the explanation, "But I intended it only as action research"?

The reasons for the failure of the idea are not difficult to identify. The first pertains to the definition of action research vis-à-vis the definition of research in general. Kurt Lewin is credited with first having used the term within the social sciences. He characterized action research as "a comparative research on the conditions and effects of various forms of social action."[2] In transferring the concept to education, Corey, author of the only substantial publication on action research, defined it as "the process by which practitioners attempt to study their problems scientifically in order to guide, correct, and evaluate their decisions and actions."[3]

Definitions remained quite similar to this through the 1950s and 1960s, perhaps becoming more precise and delimiting. Fox's definition is typical. He emphasized the very local nature of the concept: "...research which is motivated by a specific local problem and is designed only to resolve that problem in that setting...."[4]

By the 1970s, however, the sense of action research had changed significantly. Best described the concept in subtly different terms that imply a fundamental change of emphasis:

> The purpose of action research is to combine the research function with teacher growth in such qualities as objectivity, skill in research processes, habits of thinking, ability to work harmoniously with others, and professional spirit.[5]

Engelhart, in a similar vein, saw action research not as a research failure but as a desirable developmental activity:

> Some years ago "action research" became quite popular... and it is probable that action research did motivate teachers to more professional efforts in instruction. The major criticism of action research was directed at the tendency toward inadequate planning. Problems were ill-defined and necessary control of relevant factors was neglected. The findings were seldom sufficiently dependable to warrant long-term decisions or to be regarded as an even minor contribution to the science of education. Despite all this, ...participation by school personnel in educational research activities should be promoted. Teachers and administrators may acquire greater understanding of what is involved....[6]

Thus, from the perspective of recent history it appears that there has been a gradual realization that action research is a concept that has been misplaced. It is not wisely viewed as a type of research but rather as a type of teacher-development activity. In a conference on priorities for the future it would be anachronistic to treat it as research, but futuristic to treat it as an in-service teacher-education activity, probably under rubrics like decision-making, problem solving, or analysis of classroom problems. It cannot in any realistic sense help to meet our pressing research needs.

On a substantive level the concept of action research does not reconcile with the general notion of research. It especially fails in terms of the criterion of generalizability of knowledge. Both a professional and a lay sense of research include the expectation that knowledge generated in one setting (or in one experiment) has applicability in another. Why should we invest in learning about the effects of a new drug upon a sample of people in Rochester, Minnesota, if those effects will be different upon other people? Why should we study the crash-worthiness of a Buick Skylark, Serial Number 07H329641, if its characteristics are not similar to those of other Buick Skylarks? The essence of empirical research requires that there be some generalizability of knowledge. Early proponents of action research attempted to meet this need by viewing generalizability in vertical rather than horizontal terms. In other words, generalization should not be expected from one instructor to another but rather from one time to another time within the same instructor's experience. Unfortunately, the dynamic and interactive nature of instruction makes even this highly restricted generalization unrealistic.

Another way of examining the inconsistency between the nature of research and that of action research is to contrast the fundamental aim of research with that of action research. The purpose of research is to generate knowledge—to come to understand. The purpose of action research is to solve a problem—to "make something work." These are very different aims. A person with the aim of understanding will not behave in the same way as a person with the aim of solving a problem. This is a fundamental difference that is often overlooked or misunderstood—probably because knowledge generated in research is subsequently often used to solve problems, though not in a simplistic, direct manner.

Problem solving versus knowledge generation becomes a poignant problem when we move from the abstract level of functions and roles to the flesh-and-blood level of teachers and students in classrooms. In the 1980s the teaching role is neither simple nor easy—to understate the obvious.

> Teaching is tough! It is difficult to think of many occupations as demanding intellectually, physically, and psychologically. Who else but teachers must keep well informed in one or more disciplines, must organize and manage one or more groups of workers (students) and provide for both their success and satisfaction? Who else must be concerned not only with the client but with maintaining good relationships with the client's family? Who else gets blamed when vandalism and crime increase and when scores on college entrance examinations drop? What other occupational group is subjected to so much national criticism...? Who else is constantly second-guessed by nearly everyone about what to do and how to do it?[7]

It is probably impossible to exaggerate or to overstate the difficulty of this role. Teacher "burn-out" has become a very real construct. One of the most frequently requested in-service workshop topics is stress management. Within teacher-education programs the most frequently heard lament is probably that there is too little time to develop all the kinds of teaching competency that are needed. In doctoral programs we struggle for years to develop research competency in our students. In this context it is little short of preposterous to expect that the classroom instructor be competent to do any sort of research activity. Even the simplest research effort requires the same careful and knowledgeable attention to the same complex factors that must be attended to in a large-scale research project. It is not an activity that can be simplified by being miniaturized. It is not an activity for amateurs.

An ethical issue is involved in teacher-research activity. Given the universally heavy teaching responsibilities of both secondary- and college-level instructors, is it acceptable to devote energies to research activities that inevitably siphon time and effort away from helping students to learn? Relatedly, an additional responsibility must be met: There is a small but nonetheless real level of "danger" with certain types of research. The legal protection of human subjects is not sensitive enough to preclude inflicting an experimental condition that is slightly less effective than its alternative or that entails an unanticipated and undesirable side effect. Thus, the parent who refuses permission to have a youngster participate in a teacher's research may be wise and conscientious. (Hopefully, such consequences are minimal in research planned and conducted by skilled researchers.)

Thus, it seems fair to conclude that action research, as originally formulated, has made little sense and has had negligible impact on the education enterprise. The intensely demanding characteristics of teaching today make it even less viable. It is important, nevertheless, to emphasize that teachers need to come to understand the phenomena with which they work. Involvement in action research certainly leads to better understanding of the teaching-learning process. To claim that this is desirable is to state the obvious. To claim that coming to understand is synonymous with doing research is, it would appear, an unwise distortion.

The argument against action research is not an argument against research, nor is it an argument against teacher-involvement in research. If we are to learn more about teachers teaching students languages, we must involve teachers. The question is in what way.

The New Research Outlook

Carroll recommended back in 1963 that "useful experiments in foreign language teaching can be conducted by adhering fairly closely...to patterns of teaching and types of teaching materials which have already been developed and found successful...."[8] He further recommended that "a particularly useful context in which educational experimentation could be done is a regular language course...."[9]

Many of us have quoted that recommendation and have used it to justify research that was done in school settings. In some cases it may have been an excuse for lack of experimental control; in others, it was a legitimate effort to make the research more significant and more validly generalizable to classroom learning. At the same time it has been recognized that we have transplanted into language classrooms a research tradition that is appropriate in the physical sciences but is less appropriate in the social sciences (if we may so classify education). In our research courses it was within a context of true experimental comparisons that we learned about hypothesis construction sampling strategies, acceptable designs, instrument development, statistical analysis, and interpretation. At the risk of being simplistic, we can view much of our research as a use of an agricultural model where the classroom is analogous to a garden plot and the students analogous to bean plants. We manipulate the amount of sunlight or the rate of application of nitrogen and weigh or count the beans to determine the effects of the manipulated factor(s). Unfortunately (from the researcher's point of view), students of all ages do not sit permanently and quietly in garden plot rows. (In fact, the horticulturalist will quickly identify the many ways in which even the bean plants interact.) Thus, it can be argued that unfortunate limitations inhere in some of the most common research modes that have been applied to second-language education. The brief history of research on the classroom teaching-learning process in second languages reflects our efforts to cope with these limitations. Most persons would identify the global methodological comparisons of the 1960s as the first modern significant research on the teaching-learning process in our classrooms. We learned from these comparisons of Method A and Method B that little information can be gained from such research. A "method" (as some persist in using that label) is a massive collection of bits of behavior, materials, ideas, assumptions, and language patterns—indeed of all facets of instruction. Within this enormous configuration of thousands of variables there are many that facilitate learning, others that neither facilitate nor impede learning, and still others that impede learning (or that are notably less effective than an alternative might be). Thus, one inevitably ends up with few overall differences between the methods. In an effort to remedy this limitation, instructional studies were designed in the early 1970s that focused on the effects of a single variable upon learning.[10] This conceptualization, though continuing the comparative tradition, does minimize some control problems. Unfortunately, it also introduces a new problem, namely, that of asking too much of one isolated variable within an enormous configuration of variables. Only carefully chosen variables that are closely related to the dependent variables can have a detectable impact on them. In the late 1970s several studies have addressed this issue of detectability by employing a min-max principle: minimizing the context in which the research is being conducted (especially the duration of the experiment and the knowledge or skills that are to be learned) and maximizing the distinctiveness of the various levels of the independent variable(s).[11] There is no question about the wisdom and benefits of these modifications of the research designs for experimental comparisons, particularly when they are combined with the powerful multivariate statistical methods that have been developed in recent years. Many more research efforts are needed. From them we shall learn to improve further the methodological procedures and designs, especially ways of minimizing the context for the research.

In tomorrow's research we must not fall into a trap of excessive enchantment with the elegant designs of comparative research. We have research needs that cannot be met by a comparative approach. Thus, it is fortunate that there is today a movement in educational research that seems to hold considerable potential for all areas of education and that may have a special affinity with second-language education. We have a special need for widespread use of what is now a narrower emphasis. It is in more broadly conceived terms a descriptive effort. It is not, however, a matter of the hackneyed survey approach that we most frequently think of as descriptive research. In contrast with experimental research, which always implies an intent to intervene and to change educational practice, this new approach focuses upon understanding what does happen in classrooms. It reflects a need to know rather than (or prior to) a need to change. We do not now have a single major descriptive study of what actually happens in second-language classrooms during the teaching-learning process.

The observation and analysis of all the observable behavior—all that a comprehensive videotape system would put on tape—is one aspect of such description. Although it is not the aspect that is receiving great attention in educational research quarters, it appears to have significance for us. We do not know, for example, how teachers use time. We do not know how variable teacher or student behavior tends to be in our various kinds of curricula and instruction. We do not know how promising concepts like time-on-task and wait-time are realized in our classes. One might object that in language education various observation systems have already described the behavior of the participants in the process (or, at least, are available to describe classroom behavior). Such systems will become a viable approach; however, in the 1980s previous attempts must be judged primitive, and they must be indicted as premature in relation to the state of development of our knowledge base. The approach has potential, but the past and present value of efforts has been minimal. The limitations of such systems today stem directly from the fact that we must make *a priori* selections of facets of behavior to observe. We do not yet understand well enough all that happens when someone in a teacher role consorts with 25 or 30 other persons who are in student roles—at least we do not understand well enough to single out nine or ten categories of behavior and then record instances of their occurrence and/or sequence with the hope that this abstraction can be related to achievement. There are probably tens of thousands of bits of behavior that can be identified in language classrooms and that are believed important by some educators. It would be premature to pick a handful of these behaviors for analysis. Choices would inevitably be little more than arbitrary in light of 1980 knowledge. As our understanding increases, however, these systems will become increasingly useful. They are, in effect, measurement devices whose time has not yet come. Furthermore, current exciting developments in high technology create increasing potential for recording and analyzing categories of observable behavior. Technology has already provided us, for example, with an entirely self-contained computer that could perform all possible analyses of such data and that is smaller and less obtrusive than a clipboard and pad of paper—and that costs only $250.

A need also exists for alternative ways of describing and analyzing classroom behavior. This is not a call for a brilliant creation that cannot yet be foreseen. We are already able to formulate many hypotheses about patterns of interrelationship among the observables (and eventually non-observables) and test those hypotheses against chance occurrence or alternative patterns. The required methodology already exists. It is evident that there is a trial-and-error character in the formulation of such hypotheses; however, that is more a reflection of the state of our knowledge than a weakness in our research ability.

Thus, the description and analysis of observable behavior either by tomorrow's categorical systems or by other approaches that we have not yet widely used appears to be a need in the research of the 1980s. It requires the cooperation of classroom teachers and may benefit from their collaboration, but it does not require a collaborative effort that entails heavy involvement or considerable research expertise.

The second type of descriptive research that we in language education seem to need is consistent with a major emphasis in today's educational research. It is the approach that is frequently called the ethnographic method (and sometimes the "anthropological" approach because of its widespread use in that discipline to describe cultures). Its history dates back to the ancient Greek, Herodotus, who recorded the great variety and "strangeness" he saw in other cultures.[12] On occasion the term "qualitative" research is used; however, in many contexts it would seem to be an imprecise use, for qualitative research is an extremely broad concept that is most appropriately juxtaposed with quantitative approaches. An ethnographic approach, moreover, would wisely include some quantitative procedures when applied to education. In this approach the researcher becomes a participant observer who utilizes direct observation of everyday activities along with intensive open-ended interviewing to record all that he or she perceives in a particular setting. These procedures "are rather similar to the interpretive procedures we make use of as we go about our everyday life."[13] "Rather than asking 'What works?' or 'What works with whom?' this new school of thought asks 'What is happening here and why?' The main goal of this kind of inquiry is understanding the reasons why teaching is as it is."[14] Thus, this approach does not restrict itself to recording observable behavior. As Clark succinctly states,

> Teachers and students are seen as purposive agents whose thoughts, plans, perceptions, and intentions influence their behavior and moderate the effects of behavior. The social context in which teaching and learning take place is considered an important source of explanation for classroom phenomena. Much of this research is descriptive rather than prescriptive, and the description depends, in part, on teachers' and students' reports of their thinking, reasoning, and understanding of a given situation.[15]

There is in this approach considerable interest in the psychological processes of the teacher. Just as in today's enlightened teacher-education approaches, the instructor is viewed as a rational and intelligent individual who is dealing with an extremely complex situation that must be intellectually simplified in a rational and adaptive way. The teachers' judgment, decision making, attention, short-term and long-term memory, and intentions become a reality that cannot be ignored. Likewise, the student's intentions, decision making, perceptions, and interpretations are an important part of the reality of the classroom. We must come to understand these components of language education.

Traditional research approaches have always assumed that relationships can be impersonal. Attention is therefore directed away from relationships. Anytime that any one of us conducts research, however, we enter into a relationship with all the participants in that research. Gadlin and Ingle remind us "that there is no way in which human research cannot be relational and that psychological methodology must attend to the relational quality of research."[16] Language education, a quintessentially relational human activity, ought to be studied as such.

The potential for such research is great. There are, however, at least two serious concerns that must be addressed. First, who is to be the researcher? The forces impinging upon the teacher virtually preclude the demanding role of the participant observer. Some instructors elect to do such research, and, of course, they should be encouraged. It is unrealistic, however, to impose such a research role upon instructors. Rather, we would seem to benefit more from instructors who collaborate by permitting skilled researchers to collect information and who learn to observe their "internal behavior"—to talk about their own thoughts. A significant part of the data has to be found in the instructor's head! Hosenfeld's work is probably our best example of this general type of research.[17]

The second problem relates to the propensity of educators, in general, and foreign language educators, in particular, to view ethnographic research as simple, as easy to do, and as quite suited to their nonquantitative intuitions. On the contrary, it is probably much more demanding in terms of rigor and required skills. Relatedly, we must ask if researchers can become participants in the teaching-learning process without changing the process solely by virtue of their participation in it.

> Participant observation demands complete commitment to the task of understanding. The ethnographer becomes part of the situation being studied in order to feel what it is like for the people in that situation.[18]

In effect, the researcher becomes the main instrument for observation. To what extent it is possible to meet the anthropological ideal of becoming totally involved in the group being studied is not yet clear in educational research.

> The ideal way to do anthropology in schools would be to become a student, sit all day, take orders from the teacher, visit other students in their homes, and play with them. The ideal way to study the culture of teachers would be to be a teacher oneself. Yet, as researchers, we cannot be children nor well-socialized teachers.[19]

The nature of the optimal role for the observer is itself a researchable question. Thus, we can initially use our present knowledge to attempt various roles as vantage points for observation (e.g., as teacher aides or assistant instructors) and empirically determine the consequences of each.

We language educators must also consciously resist our historical tendency to rush into a new idea, simplistically assuming that a small amount of knowledge gives us expertise in this new research approach, which, we affirm, will—this time—assure that the millenium has arrived. Rist has already become concerned about the distortion and misuse of the approach:

> Any field of experience, however short and of whatever form, is suddenly being formalized as "qualitative data collection"....The advent of ethnography's popularity has meant that the rationale for employing it has changed. Whereas the classical approach was one of spending considerable time in the field, learning the nuances and "deep meanings" of the system, we now find "hit and run" forays into the field being termed "ethnography"....Ethnography is a movement with an open admissions policy. Self-declaration of affiliation appears all that is necessary for membership.[20]

Summary and Conclusions

The need for massive research on the second-language teaching-learning process requires no documentation. For a decade the vast majority of our meager research has been graduate-student dissertation research. Our literature remains dominated by nonresearch articles and occasionally "visited" by research from other fields such as linguistics. It may be that we even permit our fascination with language matters to deflect our research energies away from the teaching-learning process. Even more disconcertingly, we seem to be particularly "at the mercy of powerful and passionate writers who shift educational thinking ever more erratically with their manifestos."[21] The solution certainly does not lie within action research—the topic of record for this paper. It has been argued that action research can be a valid component of in-service teacher-development activity. As research, however, its thirty-year history is one of virtually total failure. More than ever before, today's language instructor cannot be asked to be a researcher as well as a competent teacher. At the same time, there are incontrovertible reasons for instructor collaboration in research, but such collaboration is not easily described in conventional-role terminology. Participation itself seems more important than the particular form or character of the participation. Thus, the form of the collaboration would seem best determined by collaborating researchers and instructors.

Improvements are being made in conventional research designs. Statistical analysis is becoming increasingly sophistocated. Certainly this quantitative work must be continued. There is also a need for massive efforts at very basic descriptive research. Of particular interest is the use of ethnographic procedures, which are now receiving considerable attention in other areas of educational research.

Lastly, we must consider our ability to conduct research. Collectively we remain an impoverished corner of education. In terms of our collective research expertise we probably have more "dead wood" than any other segment of education (a notoriety that may be shared with art and music education). We are gradually developing, however, a minimal critical talent mass. The number of language educators who have advanced training in research skills is slowly but surely increasing. This may be the source of greatest hope for the 1980s.

NOTES

*This paper addresses the specific issue of "action research" and then postulates alternative desired research approaches for the 1980s. It should be noted that discussion is restricted to research on the language teaching-learning process. It does not treat areas such as linguistic analysis or description of target cultures.

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Second Language Acquisition Research: Needs and Priorities

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Research and Practice

The purpose of this paper is to discuss what our research priorities in second language acquisition should be. It will be helpful, however, before discussing these priorities, to discuss what research is for in second language acquisition, how it can serve the teaching profession.

Our goal in foreign language education, at all times, is to improve teaching practice, and research must always serve this goal. It can do this in two ways. First, research can serve as confirming and counter-evidence to theories of second language acquisition, which can be extremely practical tools in improving practice. We will refer to research that has this goal as "theoretical" research. Second, research can be neutral to theory, and seek only to determine what works and does not work in the second and foreign language classroom. We will refer to this kind of research as "applied" research. In this section, we will take some time to briefly describe these two kinds of research and how they relate to practice. In the sections that follow, I will present what appears to be the state of the art (or science) in both these areas, discuss some gaps in our research efforts, and suggest some directions for the future.

Theoretical Research

Theoretical research has as its goal the development of theory. A theory is simply a set of interrelated hypotheses that are supported by empirical evidence. It is thus an attempt to account for a number of phenomena in terms of a set of generalizations. It is important to point out that theoretical hypotheses can be supported by empirical data, but cannot be "proven." The existence or discovery of just one genuine counter-example is enough to "disprove" a theory, no matter how many confirming cases are found. For illustration, let us assume that a formal linguist proposes the following universal: All languages have pronouns. He presents us with a list of 547 languages, all of which contain pronouns. Can he claim that his universal is "proven"? All he can really claim is that his hypothesis finds support. The critic can always remain "unconvinced" and ask for more data, suggesting that some unknown, unstudied, long-dead, or yet to be developed language lacks pronouns. Science is, thus, a dangerous game, easy to lose!

Theoretical hypotheses remain our, or someone's, best guess as to how nature works. They are not objects of faith, and not truth. When scientists state their "position," they are not stating what they "believe," but which hypotheses they feel are supported by the evidence and which are worthy of further testing.

In section two of this paper, I will state my position in second language acquisition theory, a sets of hypotheses which are consistent with and account for many of the phenomena and experimental results in second language acquisition and foreign language education. They are supported by evidence, but are not "proven." What is very important is that they are testable, that it is possible to find evidence counter to each of them and thus to the theory as a whole, and this makes progress possible.

Applied Research

Applied research seeks to determine which methods, techniques, and/or procedures are more efficient, which ones work, and which ones do not. This kind of research can be, and has been, conducted completely independently of theory, or it may be done in such a way that theory is affected and instructed by its results as well. Applied research may attempt to determine, for example, which of two teaching methods produces better gain scores on tests, whether older students learn faster than younger students, whether visuals help students in foreign language classes.

There is a growing body of applied research in foreign language education, and I will attempt to summarize some of it in the third section, pointing out what its main conclusions have been, and how it relates to the theory discussed in section two.

Research and Practice

It seems logical to assume that both theoretical and applied research should have some impact on language teaching practice. My impression, however, is that neither form of research has much effect on how languages are taught today. To understand this, it is necessary to look into the past.

At one time, theoretical research was the main source of knowledge for many language teachers. They assumed, as we did, that those in the university knew best, and methodologies based on theory were widely used. The problem, however, was that these methodologies did not work very well. Our assumption, from the university, was that the fault was not with the theories but with the teachers, who clearly did not understand the true nature of our insights into language and language acquisition.

This has happened twice in recent years, with very different kinds of theories. One was audiolingualism, a method based on behaviorism, a theory of learning with serious limitations and of limited relevance (we know now) to language acquisition. The second time this occurred was when transformational grammar assumed dominance in formal linguistics. Many of us thought that this new system for describing the competence of the adult native speaker should form the basis for syllabi in language teaching. This also did not work, but many of us blamed its failure on teachers' inadequate grasp of *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*, rather than our failure to understand that a theory of grammatical structure and language universals is not necessarily the same as a theory of language acquisition.

Because of the university's inability to provide the answers, teachers have turned away from theory and research of any sort, theoretical and applied, and have turned to a third source of inspiration and guidance: their own ideas and experience. A look at the programs of conferences and workshops shows us that this is true: we no longer see papers and presentations on topics such as "An analysis of the verb system in German," or "Pattern drilling techniques." We see, instead, teachers informing other teachers what has worked for them in the classroom. And what has worked for them is the use of language for real communication (see, for example, the 1980 ACTFL program, with such titles as "Food for thought: teaching French and German language and culture through cookery;" "Inkblots, Norman Rockwell and New Yorker Ads - Let's talk!" " Techniques for active language use at the intermediate and advanced levels.").

Perhaps unknown to teachers, theoretical and applied research are now reaching similar conclusions, conclusions consistent with what teachers are coming up with on their own. Our goal for the future should thus be to restore some balance, to allow all three sources, theory, applied research, and teachers' ideas, to contribute to practice and to enrich each other.

Theoretical Research and Second Language Acquisition Theory

I will attempt to summarize the theoretical research that has gone on in the last decade by stating five hypotheses about second language acquisition. Following this, we will look at the implications of these five hypotheses for other theoretical work in second language acquisition, and then see what this theory has to say, or predict, about second and foreign language teaching. There will be discussion of the gaps in the research literature, places where more support or testing of hypotheses is called for.

Five Hypothesis about Second Language Acquisition

I. The Acquisition/Learning hypothesis

This hypothesis states that we have two different and independent ways of developing ability in second languages. We can *acquire* and we can *learn*. *Acquisition* is defined as the process children use to acquire first language. It is subconscious in two different ways. First, the process is subconscious; we are usually not aware that we are acquiring while we are acquiring. Rather, we have the impression that we are doing something else, such as having an interesting conversation or reading an interesting book. We are also not always aware that we have acquired something; the knowledge itself is subconscious. This is illustrated by the fact that native speakers do not always "know" (consciously) the rules of their language. It is the purpose of current formal linguistics (transformational-generative grammar) to describe these subconscious intuitions about language, the native speaker's "tacit" knowledge.

Learning is conscious, or explicit knowledge about language. Learning is developed, it is thought, by explicit, or formal instruction, and is thought to be aided by the practice of error correction. Error correction, supposedly, helps the learner come to the correct mental representation of a rule. In everyday language, acquisition is "picking up" a language, while learning is "grammar," or "rules."

It is difficult to test the acquisition/learning hypothesis directly, but it plays an important role in all the other hypotheses, so evidence in favor of them serves as evidence supporting the acquisition/learning hypothesis. The issue of error correction has been investigated directly, and we will return to the possibilities in a later section, once the relationship between acquisition and learning is stated.

II. The Natural Order hypothesis

This hypothesis states that we acquire (not learn) grammatical structures in a predictable order, that is, certain structures tend to be acquired early, and others tend to be acquired late. This order can be altered by first language influence (see below), but cannot be altered by the effects of instruction.

Much of the research supporting the Natural Order hypothesis comes from English. Brown, for example, reported that children acquiring English as a first language tend to acquire certain morphemes early (plural /s/ and progressive *ing*) and others late (third person singular ending /s/ and the possessive *'s*).[1] Similar claims were made for child second language acquisition initially by Dulay and Burt and subsequently by others,[2] and for adult second language acquisition, beginning with Bailey, Madden, and Krashen.[3] The second language order is not identical to the first language order, but there are some similarities.[4]

Related to the Natural Order hypothesis is the phenomenon of transitional forms. It appears to be the case that second language learners pass through predictable stages on their way to acquiring the correct form for many, if not all, structures. For example, in the acquisition of English negation, both first and second language acquirers often pass through a stage in which the negative marker is placed outside the sentence, as in

(1) No like it now.[5]

A second stage consists of placing the negative marker between the subject and verb, as in

(2) This no have calendar.[6]

Finally, in the third stage, which not all acquirers reach, the correct form is acquired.

There are many areas of research and unanswered questions regarding the natural order hypothesis. A major one, of course, is why an order exists. What determines the order? Why are some structures early and others late? There has been considerable research and speculation on this topic.[7] While this is a theoretically interesting question, it may not be crucial to second language teaching practice. We need to know that an order exists to understand why students make the errors they do and to alter our expectations accordingly, but it is not yet clear that we need to know the determinants of the order.

Another possible priority is to expand our knowledge of what the order is for as many languages and as many structures as possible. We have enough evidence to state the hypothesis, but our data is limited to a few well studied languages and a handful of structures. Such additional confirming evidence is desirable in order to support the hypothesis, or to disconfirm it, but it may not be crucial for language teachers. As I will point out later, in discussing the Input hypothesis (hypothesis IV), the major implication of the Natural Order hypothesis is *not* that we teach along the Natural Order, beginning with those structures shown to be acquired early. In fact, the available evidence strongly suggests that we should not use a grammatical syllabus at all, no matter what it is based on!

A very important question is when the order appears and when it does not, that is, what conditions are necessary to show that a Natural Order is indeed present. This is discussed as part of the next hypothesis.

III. The Monitor hypothesis

The acquisition/learning hypothesis stated that two separate processes exist for developing ability in a second language. The Monitor hypothesis describes their interrelationship and how each is utilized by the second language performer. The Monitor hypothesis claims that acquisition, not learning, is responsible for our fluency in second language performance, for our ability to use second languages easily and comfortably. Conscious learning does not contribute to fluency, but has only one function: it can be used as an editor, or Monitor. We use conscious learning to make corrections, to change the form of the output of the acquired system before we write or speak, or sometimes after (self-correction).

This hypothesis regulates learning to a less than starring role in second language performance. Research over the last few years suggests strongly that the use of conscious learning is very limited. Not only is it restricted to the Monitor function, but it is not easy to use the Monitor effectively. I have posited that three conditions need to be met in order to use the Monitor, conditions that are necessary, but not sufficient:

(1) *Time:* In normal conversation, there is rarely enough time to consult and utilize conscious rules, although some performers claim to be able to do this very well.

(2) *Focus on form:* Just having time is not enough. Even when acquirers have plenty of time, they do not always think about grammatical correctness. Dulay and Burt have pointed out that a second condition is necessary: the acquirer must be focused on form, or correctness.

(3) *Know the rule:* This is a formidable condition, considering how incomplete our knowledge of formal grammar is. Linguists concede that they have described only fragments of natural languages, and teachers and students have access only to a portion of these descriptions.

Research support for this hypothesis comes originally from studies of the natural order phenomenon. It has been found that second language performers show "natural orders" (in this case, a difficulty order similar to the longitudinal order of acquisition) in what can be considered "Monitor-free" situations, in which use of the conscious grammar is precluded, when there is little time or focusing on form. When the conditions for Monitor use are met, the natural order does not appear, which represents the intrusion of the conscious grammar.

It is interesting to note just how the natural order is disturbed by the Monitor. What we see is a rise in rank of late acquired items that are "easy" to learn. In English as a second language, for example, accuracy on items such as the third person singular morpheme will rise in rank and accuracy when students are given time and are focused on form. I would expect that similar increases would occur on similar items in other languages, items that are late acquired but are "learnable" and taught early. The simple *de + le = du* rule in French is a good example, as are case endings in German. Our students are often able to perform well on these items on pencil and paper grammar tests, but are much less accurate in free conversation.

Another very interesting point is our current hypothesis that for most students anything short of a discrete-point grammar test will not invoke the conscious grammar to any great degree. We see only mild, if any, Monitor use in composition, and in other situations in which students are asked to "be careful." Only a grammar test seems to meet all three conditions.

A great many questions can be asked with respect to this hypothesis. Most obviously, since most of the data in support of this hypothesis comes from English as a second language, we need to confirm its validity for foreign language situations. This work has been begun by some students at the University of Southern California.[8] We also need to gather more data on when the Monitor is used and when it is not: what situations bring out the grammar? Is it true that extensive grammar use is only possible on grammar tests?

The question of individual variation is another important one. I have suggested that we find basically three types of performers: Monitor over-users, who Monitor all the time, to the detriment of their fluency; Monitor under-users, those who fail to consult the conscious grammar at all; and optional users, performers who use the grammar when they can, but only if such use does not interfere with communication.[9] Optimal users typically are able to use grammar rules in writing, for example, but may not always use them in speaking. This individual variation schema was developed from a consideration of case histories, and has found some support in other studies.[10] It needs not only further confirmation, but investigation of what sorts of programs might be optimal for different types of learners.[11]

IV. The Input hypothesis

This hypothesis deals with the important question of how we acquire. It consists of three interrelated parts:

(1) We acquire by understanding input containing structures that are a bit beyond our current competence. In terms of the Natural Order hypothesis we move from our current level i to the next level $i + 1$ by understanding input containing $i + 1$.

We acquire, the hypothesis states, by going for meaning, by focusing on what is said rather than how it is said. We are aided in this process by extralinguistic context, and our knowledge of the world. We do *not* acquire by first learning about the structure of the language. We try to understand the message, and structure is thereby acquired.

(2) Speaking "emerges." We do not teach speaking but give acquirers comprehensible input. Speech will come on its own, when the acquirer feels ready. Early speech is not grammatically accurate, but accuracy develops as the acquirer obtains more comprehensible input.

(3) The best input is *not* grammatically sequenced. Rather, if the acquirer understands the input presented, and enough of it is made available, $i + 1$, the structures the acquirer needs for further development, will be automatically provided. Thus, the best input is not grammatically sequenced. Not only is it not necessary, but it may be harmful, when the goal is acquisition (this is not the case when the goal is conscious learning). The acquirers will receive comprehensible input containing structures just beyond them if they are in situations involving genuine communication, and these structures will be constantly provided and automatically reviewed. They need not worry about missing a class and thereby missing the past tense forever (or at least until next year). With natural, comprehensible input the hypothesis predicts that they will hear the past tense again and again.

In other words, part (3) of the Input hypothesis claims that input for acquisition need not focus only on $i + 1$, it just needs to contain it. $i + 1$ will be supplied, and naturally reviewed, when the acquirers obtain enough comprehensive input.

Evidence for the Input hypothesis is given in some detail in other publications,[12] but it is useful to briefly mention two phenomena in second language acquisition that relate to and are consistent with the Input hypothesis. The first is the presence of the silent period, a period of time before the acquirer actually starts to speak. The silent period is very noticeable in child second language acquisition; young children in a new country facing a new language may say nothing (except for some memorized sentences and phrases) for several months. According to the Input hypothesis, this is a time during which they are building up competence via input, by listening and understanding. When they are ready, they start to talk.

We generally do not allow our students to have a silent period. We insist on production, and accurate production, right away. When adults have to talk too early, before they have had a chance to acquire much of the second language, they have only one choice, and that is to fall back on their first language, an idea first proposed by Newmark.[13] They "think" in the first language, supply lexical items from the second language, and use the conscious grammar as best they can to make repairs. According to this view, first language interference is not interference at all, but is the result of using old knowledge. Its cure is acquisition, or more comprehensible input.

A great deal of research related to this central hypothesis needs to be done. Most important, we can ask whether acquirers who have had a chance to get more comprehensible input actually do better than those who do not.[14] Also, does comprehensible input with imperfections, that is, the speech of other acquirers, help or hurt?[15] The "first language interference" hypothesis is also quite testable.[16]

The input hypothesis is perhaps the most crucial of all, since if it is correct, it will revolutionize our methodology in second language teaching.[17]

V. The Affective Filter hypothesis

This hypothesis deals with the role of affective variables. Briefly, the research literature in second language acquisition tells us that the following affective variables are related to success in second language acquisition:

(1) *Anxiety:* The lower the level of anxiety, the better the language acquisition. In Stevick's terms, the student should be "off the defensive."[18]

(2) *Motivation:* Certainly, higher motivation predicts better second language acquisition. Certain types of motivation are more effective in certain situations, "integrative" motivation helping most in long-term, and "luxury" second language acquisition and "instrumental" helping for short-term acquisition where there is a practical need for the language.[19]

(3) *Self-confidence:* The acquirer with more self-esteem and self-confidence tends to do better in second language acquisition.[20]

I have hypothesized that these affective factors relate more directly to subconscious language acquisition than to conscious learning, since we see stronger relationships between these affective variables and attainment in second languages when communicative-type tests are used, and when we test students who have had a chance to *acquire* the language (and not just learn it). Dulay and Burt have made this relationship more explicit and clear by positing the presence of an "Affective Filter."[21] According to the Affective Filter hypothesis, acquirers in a less than optimal affective state will have a filter, or mental block, preventing them from utilizing input fully for further language acquisition. If they are anxious, on the defensive, or not motivated, they may understand the input, but the input will not enter the "language acquisition device."

According to this hypothesis, given performers with identical comprehensible input, there may still be variation in rate of acquisition and ultimate attainment in acquisition. The one with the "lower filter" will go faster and farther.

As with the other hypotheses, there is much work left to do. The generalizations concerning affective variables and subconscious acquisition were made *post hoc*, on the basis of previously reported studies. This relationship needs to be experimentally verified. (I have similarly claimed that what we call *aptitude* in second language acquisition is closely tied to conscious learning, also on the basis of a *post hoc* analysis of previously done experiments and reports.) Also, the Filter hypothesis itself is indirectly testable. Will we find that acquirers with similar input progress at different rates, and are these differences traceable to affective factors? What other affective factors contribute to the filter, and will we find different factors prevalent in different situations?[22]

The Causative Variable in Second Language Acquisition

We can summarize the five hypotheses with a single claim: People acquire second languages when they obtain comprehensible input, and when their Affective Filters are low enough to allow the input "in." Thus, comprehensible input is the true and only causative variable in second language acquisition. This predicts that other variables posited to be related to success in second language acquisition are actually intervening variables for comprehensive input. This is quite testable, and, of course, quite exciting.

The first testable component of this hypothesis is that *instruction* itself is an intervening variable, that it helps second language acquisition only when it provides comprehensible input. The little data that is available supports this, but it is truly shocking how little data is available. In short, the research done to date suggests that instruction helps only when it is the main source of comprehensible input, when the acquirer has no other source. It helps, for example, for beginners, even those in second language situations (who are not yet competent enough to understand the language outside of class), but does not seem to help intermediate students who have another rich source of comprehensible input[23] This makes sense. It suggests that the goal of instruction is not to produce advanced native-like speakers but to bring students to the point where they can begin to take advantage of the natural inpu available to them outside of class.

Similarly, studies probing the effect of *exposure* and *reported use* of second languages come to similar conclusions. They predic attainment in second language when they genuinely reflect rea use of the language, interaction, comprehensible input. Again only a handful of studies speak to this question, and my conclusions are again *post hoc*. This is thus a wide-open area for research.

It can even be hypothesized that *age* is an intervening variable. The literature tells us that older acquirers are faster acquirers, for early stages. Younger acquirers, however, are superior in terms of ultimate attainment.[24] The older acquirers' advantage in rate may be due to their ability to obtain comprehensible input,[25] while the younger acquirers' superiority in eventual attainment has been hypothesized to be due to the strengthening of the affective filter.[26] As Scarcella and Higa have demonstrated, these are very testable hypotheses.

Implications for Teaching

The theory makes definite predictions for second and foreign language teaching, all of which are testable, and some of which have been tested to some extent in applied research experiments. Briefly, the theory predicts that successful second language teaching programs will have these characteristics:

(1) They will supply a great deal of comprehensible input that is interesting and relevant to the students. The goal of this input will not be to provide practice on specific points of grammar, but will be to transmit messages of interest.

(2) They will not force students to speak before they are ready and will be tolerant of errors in early speech.

(3) They will put grammar in its proper place. Some adults (and very few children) are able to use conscious rules to increase the grammatical accuracy of their output, and even for these people, very strict conditions need to be met before the conscious grammar can be applied.

Several methods come close to meeting these requirements, including Asher's, Total Physical Response method, Terrell's Natural Approach, Lozanov's Suggestopedia, and recent materials developed by Harris Winitz. In addition, several nonmethods meet these requirements nicely. Successful *conversation* with a speaker of the language you are trying to acquire may be the best lesson of all, as long as the speaker succeeds in making the speech comprehensible to you. According to the theory, acquirers profit not from what they say, but from what the native speaker says. Output thus makes an indirect but powerful contribution to acquisition by inviting comprehensible input! Also, *pleasure reading* has the potential for supplying comprehensible input helpful for acquisition.

Of course, the claim that a method is successful is quite testable, as we shall see in the next section. In addition, the hypothesis that conversationalists and pleasure readers acquire (but not necessarily learn) more is also testable, but has not, to my knowledge, been tested directly in theoretical research.

A prediction that the theory makes that has been extensively tested is that subject matter teaching can help language acquisition. The research is quite extensive for children, coming from the very well studied immersion programs,[27] but the possibility that adults may also benefit remains a theoretical prediction.

Applied Research

We will focus on just one aspect of applied research here, that of method comparison studies, the attempt to determine which of two methods is better by direct comparison. While this sort of research looks to be straightforward, it is loaded with difficulties and confounds. Nevertheless, a substantial number of studies have been done, and, since they involve fairly large numbers of students in many different settings, and they give remarkably consistent results, they are worth examining.

The studies can be divided historically into two time periods. First came what can be termed "traditional" method comparison studies, studies comparing the more common methods, such as audiolingual, cognitive-code, and grammar-translation. We can summarize the results of these studies:[28]

(1) There is little difference between audiolingual-type teaching and grammar-based approaches (grammar-translation and cognitive-code style) for adolescents.

(2) For adults, cognitive type methods are a little better. Cognitive students outperform audiolingual students, but the differences are quite small. This result had two different kinds of reactions in the field. Stevick noted the implicit contradiction, asking how methods based on totally different theories of language acquisition could produce such similar results.[29] Many methodologists and teachers, however, simply assumed that the answer was to be eclectic, to choose parts of each system in the belief that the answer must be somewhere in the middle. As fair-minded as this sounds, it often resulted in teachers choosing the worst from each, the parts least likely to cause acquisition: drill from audiolingual and extensive grammar explanation from grammar-translation and cognitive code!

There is an explanation. Neither approach provided much in the way of comprehensible input, and neither met the requirements outlined above for successful language teaching methods. This predicts that methods that do not meet these requirements should do much better, and there is some indication that they do. Asher has provided the profession with an extensive series of studies demonstrating the efficacy of Total Physical Response teaching, showing that TPR is not just a little better, but is much better than audiolingual teaching. In one study, in fact, his TPR students acquired *five times faster* than controls.[30] Swaffar and Woodruff also confirm that methods focusing on comprehensible input and that keep grammar in its place do much better than the older alternatives.[31]

These kinds of results are very encouraging. They support the theory, even though they were done without this particular theory in mind, and point to exciting new directions.

What remains to be done? A great deal. We need, despite their flaws, more comparisons, more program development research, using the model of Swaffar and Woodruff. This includes more direct tests of newer methods. Also useful would be case histories of students in these methods, a means of getting at their reactions and problems.

Experimentation I would be particularly interested in involves a new direction for the language laboratory. Up to now, the lab has been a place where students can come to exercise their output and have it corrected. A far easier and technologically simpler use for the lab is as a supplementary source of comprehensible input. Here are some possibilities: taped stories, with pictures to aid comprehension and add to the enjoyment (as currently being developed by Harris Winitz), radio programs, commercials on tape, a "cheap" library, for casual pleasure reading, filled with books that the lab is not afraid of losing. And perhaps most important, a native speaker, willing to chat with whomever comes in! The theory predicts that such a lab would do great things for language acquisition, and this prediction is certainly testable.

The question of materials can also be considered an (applied) research priority. The predictions made for methods also can be applied to materials. Simply, the best materials will be those that supply comprehensible input, that do not force overuse of grammar, and that keep the student off the defensive. This predicts that specialized readers, readers on topics that truly interest students, aids to comprehension in the classroom (e.g., visuals), and materials that aid Monitor use without creating over-users will succeed. This is quite testable, and calls for a new tradition of field testing. In the past, for example, we assumed our readers were acceptable if they contained certain structures and avoided others. The theory predicts now that successful readers are simply those that are comprehensible and interesting. If these requirements are met, the structural requirements (that i + 1 be present) will automatically be met.

Conclusion

We have touched on a few places where more research needs to be done. In all cases, the gaps I have identified are related to current hypotheses. Of course, new hypotheses will be developed, but this is unpredictable. What is predicatable is that if we continue our thinking and research, research designed to test old hypotheses, new ideas will come, deeper generalizations to account for anomalies.

What is most important is the realization that both theoretical and applied research can contribute to progress in foreign language education, and that accepting research as a determinant of practice does not necessarily mean rejecting teachers' experiences and intuitions. But language teaching should not be based entirely on fashion, and matters of methodology should not be settled by committee and vote. Our top priority should be to form a real partnership between theoretical researcher, applied researcher, and language teacher, so we can work togther toward a common goal.

NOTES

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2. H. Dulay and M. Burt, "Natural Sequences in Child and Adult Second Language Acquisition," *Language Learning*, 24 (1974), 37-53.

3. M. Bailey, C. Madden, and S. Krashen, "Is There a 'Natural Sequence' in Adult Second Learning?" *Language Learning*, 21(1974), 235-43.

4. S. Krashen, *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning* (Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1981).
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5. From R. Ravem, "The Development of Wh-Questions in First and Second Language Learners," in J. Schumann and N. Stenson, eds., *New Frontiers in Second Language Learning* (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1975).

6. From J. Schumann, *The Pidginization Process* (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1978).

7. See, for example, H. Clark and E. Clark, *Psychology and Language* (New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1977); E. Hatch and J. Wagner-Gough, "Explaining Sequence and Variation in Second Language Acquisition," *Language Learning Special Issue, 4* (1976), pp. 39-57; H. Dulay and M. Burt, "Remarks on Creativity in Language Ac-

quisition," in M. Burt, H. Dulay, and M. Finocchaiaro, eds., *Viewpoints on English as a Second Language* (New York: Regents, 1977); D. Larsen-Freeman, "An Explanation for the Morpheme Acquisition Order of Second Language Learners," Language Learning, 26 (1976), 125-34.

8. Linda Bruce for Russian, and Margaret van Naerrsen for Spanish as a second language.

9. Krashen, *Second Language Acquisition.*

10. W. Y. So, "Toward a More Effective Method in ESL Writing," (Paper presented at the 1980 TESOL Convention, San Francisco); C. Stafford and G. Covitt, "Monitor Use in Adult Second Language Production," *ITL: Review of Applied Linguistics*, 39-40(1978), 103-25.

11. See discussion in So, 1978.

12. Summarized in Krashen, *Second Language Acquisition*, S. Krashen, *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition* (Oxford: Pergamon Press, in press), and S. Krashen, "The Input Hypothesis," in J. Alatis, 1980 Georgetown Roundtable on Language and Linguistics (Washington: Georgetown University, 1981).

13. L. Newmark, "How Not to Interfere With Language Learning," *International Review of American Linguistics*, 40 (1966), 77-83.

14. For one case history, see S. Krashen, "The Theoretical and Practical Significance of Simple Codes in Second Language Acquisition," in R. Scarcella and S. Krashen, eds., *Research in Second Language Acquisition* (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1980).

15. In Krashen, 1980, I argue that it helps, but there is very little evidence supporting either position.

16. For some supporting evidence, see Krashen, *Second Language Acquisition.*

17. For some current moves in this direction, see J. Asher, *Learning Another Language Through Actions* (Los Gatos,CA: Sky Oaks Productions, 1979); J. Nord, "Developing Listening Fluency Before Speaking: An Alternative Paradigm," *System* (1980), 1-22; V. Postovksy, "Effects of Delay in Oral Practice at the Beginning of Second Language Learning," *Modern Language Journal*, 58 (1974); T. Terrell, "A Natural Approach to Second Language Acquisition and Learning," *The Modern Language Journal*, 61 (1977), 325-37; and H. Winitz and J. Reed, "Rapid Acquisition of a Foreign Language (German) by the Avoidance of Speaking," *IRAL*, 11 (1973), 295-317.

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21. Dulay and Burt, *op. cit.*

22. For a review of the literature, see Krashen, *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning, op. cit.*, and J. Schumann, "Affective Factors and the Problem of Age in Second Language Acquisition," *Language Learning*, 25 (1975), 209-35.

23. For a review, see Krashen, *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition, op. cit.*

24. Reviewed in S. Krashen, M. Long and R. Scarcella, "Age, Rate, and Eventual Attainment in Second Language Acquisition," TESOL Quarterly, 13 (1979), 573-82. While many studies exist confirming these generalizations, there is plenty of room for more research.

25. R. Scarcella and C. Higa, "Input and Age Differences in Second Language Acquisition," in S. Krashen, R. Scarcella, and M. Long, eds., *Child-Adult Differences in Second Language Acquisition* (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, in press).

26. Krashen, in press.

27. W. Lambert and R. Tucker, *The Bilingual Education of Children*, (Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 1972);) M. Swain, "French Immersion: Early, Late, or Partial?" *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 34 (1978), 577-85.

28. K. Chastain, "A Methodological Study Comparing the Audio-Lingual Habit Theory and the Cognitive Code-Learning Theory," *The Modern Language Journal*, 54(1970), 257-66; T. Mueller, "The Effectiveness of Two Learning Models: The Audio-Lingual Theory and the Cognitive Code Learning Theory," in P. Pimsleur and T. Quinn, eds. *The Psychology of Second Language Learning* (Cambridge: University Press, 1971); and T. van Elek and M. Oskarsson, *Teaching Foreign Language Grammar to Adults* (Stockholm: Almqvist and Wiksell, 1976), among others.

29. Stevick, *op. cit.*

30. See, e.g., J. Asher, "Children's First Language as a Model for Second Language Learning," *The Modern Language Journal*, 53 (1972), 3-17.

31. J. Swaffar and M. Woodruff, "Language for Comprehension: Focus on Reading," *The Modern Language Journal*, 62 (1978), 27-32.

Priorities: Research

The following recommendations on priorities in research are based on position papers prepared by Thomas Cooper (University of Georgia), Gilbert Jarvis (The Ohio State University), and Stephen Krashen (University of Southern California), with reaction papers from Vicki Galloway (South Carolina Department of Education) and Theodore Higgs (San Diego State University), and discussion, including David Benseler (The Ohio State University). The author of this statement is Theodore Higgs; he has compiled the discussions of the entire committee in a form which the entire committee agreed to.

The following discussion examines the broad issue of foreign language research from three related but distinct perspectives: what research is, where it is needed, and the professional climate in which it is carried out.[1] What emerges from the discussion is a concrete and comprehensive statement of the most urgent issues and priorities facing the profession today, and some recommendations regarding the directions in which solutions are to be sought.

What Research Is

In order to provide a conceptual framework for its discussions, the committee adopted as its definition of research the statement that, "research is disciplined inquiry for the purpose of improving our understanding and general knowledge of all aspects of the teaching, learning, and acquisition processes, and of the contexts in which these occur." Research should thus be largely hypothesis-based, and its results should be valuable to both theoreticians and to practitioners in the field of foreign language education. Results are not to be confused with "truth," nor should they be construed as "orders from on high," telling practitioners what they should or should not be doing. Above all, whether they flow from an applied or a theoretical orientation, research results should be broadly applicable and relevant to a variety of possible needs or circumstances.

Distinct research methodologies must be actively encouraged, and must be tailored to the investigator's needs. Three broad types of research methodology were recognized.

The first type is classical experimental design, in which the effects of one or more independent variables on dependent variables such as student motivation and performance are observed and assessed, most typically in the form of a rigorous statistical analysis. In order for experimental design methodology to be most effective, it is necessary to eliminate, or to minimize to the greatest possible degree, the effects of the context in which the experiment takes place so that the observed results are ascribable as much as possible to the actual treatments, that is, to the independent variables themselves, and not to some unaccounted-for set of possible intervening variables.

The second type of research methodology can be broadly called descriptive research. This type of research is valuable when it is precisely the context (physical, psychological) in which teaching and learning takes place that is of central interest to the investigator. Descriptive research can be subdivided into various types of methodologies. First, there is a need for anthropological or ethnographic research methodologies which allow the investigator to get at many of the factors that affect the teaching/learning/acquisition processes, but which are not themselves directly observable. Classroom behavior studies are also a valuable source of new information. One example of this type of research includes studies of teacher strategies for deciding which student to call on in a given situation.[2] That is to say that a teacher often has a particular, statable motive for calling on a student at a particular time. It may be that the teacher has decided that the students will profit from a fairly extensive encounter with some aspect of the foreign language. In consequence, he or she may deliberately call on a student who can be depended upon to make an error, or to fumble and ask a leading question, or otherwise provide a "natural" justification for providing additional information to the whole class, either in the form of more "comprehensible input," or more instruction. Conversely, the teacher may sense that a given area cannot profitably be expanded upon at the time. He or she might then pay lip service to its existence by calling on a student who will most likely answer correctly and routinely, thereby allowing the matter to pass quietly from center stage. Many other scenarios can be discovered, and all are worthy objects of the investigator's interest and curiosity.

Studies of the effect on student responses of teacher "wait-time," that is, the amount of time the teacher typically waits between the time he or she calls on a student and the time the student begins the answer, serve as another example of possible classroom behavior studies. Wait-time studies are especially interesting in the context of the rapidly increasing number of adults who are now undertaking foreign language study. Additional examples of types of descriptive research include longitudinal/developmental studies, cross-sectional studies, case histories, and introspective studies.

Finally, the committee recognized a third type of activity that is variously referred to as "problem solving" or "action research." Basically, action research has a locally-defined problem and its solution as its focus. For that reason it is not easily "transportable," nor is it intended to add to the general store of knowledge in the profession. Thus, while this type of activity does not strictly meet the definition of research as stated at the beginning of this paper, it is nevertheless a worthwhile and valuable activity for practitioners. Training in the performance of action research should be encouraged in teacher-education programs. It can serve as a means for accumulating certain data which over time might well serve as the basis for formulating a set of testable hypotheses on which generalizable research can be done.

Broad Areas in Which Research is Needed

Three general areas were identified by the committee as requiring investigation. The first of these involves linguistic and psycholinguistic considerations in second language teaching. Such investigations must be based on explicit hypotheses so that the results obtained can be used to create and support a general theory of second language acquisition or learning. Of immediate concern, for example, is the need to understand much more fully the role of conscious learning versus subconscious acquisition as operative processes leading to second language mastery. Studies bearing on the Natural Order Hypothesis are needed in relation to hypotheses concerning the notion of grammatical sequencing in the presentation of the target language, whether live in the classroom, or in textbooks or other materials. For many other examples of research possibilities in this area, the reader is referred to Krashen's paper elsewhere in this volume.

The second major area involves the teaching/learning process. Ultimately, the direction of research in this area is at least partially dependent on results obtained from the linguistic and psycholinguistic area just discussed. Also, the results of such research may serve as evidence for or against a theoretical hypothesis. Most important, applied research is needed in order to identify and disseminate information about what works or fails to work in the classroom. Fertile areas for investigation include—but are not limited to—classroom materials such as textbooks and supplementary materials; methodologies; teaching techniques (e.g., Should there be a preproduction "silent period" in foreign language training, or should we encourage immediate responses in the second language? or How appropriate are native language responses in the foreign language learning/acquisition process?); descriptions of classroom behaviors discussed above in this paper; affective considerations such as ways to account for and eliminate student resistance, tension, hostility, and comparably debilitating states on the part of teachers; and finally, the adequacy and appropriateness of measurement and evaluation instruments, especially as involves discrete-item mastery tests of grammatical material.

The third area identified as needing research is that of the role of foreign language study in the total educational process. The most important question involves what benefits, if any, accrue to those who master a second language, but do not accrue to very many others who do not.

Research in Context: The Professional Climate

A major concern of the members of the Research Committee is the general lack of communication within the members of the profession. There is not only a problem of communication between the various researchers in foreign and second language education, which leads often to duplicative research efforts and terminological confusion, but also a failure in the communicative process between such researchers and the practitioners. A number of problems impinging on the problem of researcher to researcher were cited.

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First is the matter of institutional fragmentation. Foreign language education as a legitimate discipline seems to have fallen between the cracks in our universities. For linguistics departments, foreign language education should represent the most obvious application of linguistic theory, and thus should be a highly valued aspect of their ongoing programs. For foreign language departments, success in foreign language education (in terms of improved student performance, interest, motivation) ought to represent their most basic bread and butter issue, and hence the foreign language education specialist should be a most welcome member of the staff. Yet both typically reject the foreign language educator. The immediate consequences of this situation are, first, that too little high quality foreign language research is being done, and second, that too few foreign language researchers are being trained.

Professional fragmentation was also mentioned as a problem in foreign language research. The most obvious obstacle to productive communication is the lack of a single, strong professional organization to encompass all aspects of second language, foreign language, and bilingual education. Members of the profession often feel the lack of the strong identity often associated with other professions. The lack of a strong organization also results in the profession having little or no political strength in a decade where funding in education as a whole promises to be in diminishing supply.

The basic coping strategy for dealing with this failure to communicate in critical ways is to develop both formal and informal mechanisms that will make it possible to transcend institutional structures and professional fragmentation. At the local level, certainly one step that can be easily taken is that of having the resident second language pedagogy specialists in each foreign language department or program get together regularly to discuss shared problems and possible solutions.

Another solution is to improve the training of future foreign language teachers in matters of theory and research. This is a practical matter, and can take place as an integral part of foreign language teacher-education programs. Teacher-education programs that limit themselves to teaching a particular methodology fail to prepare their graduates with survival strategies that take into account the shifting sands of professional practices. Training in a single method leaves the teacher with no flexibility. The situation is only marginally improved if teachers receive training in a variety of methods, because if they cannot associate methods with the underlying theory that motivates them, then they cannot function creatively later on. If the teachers cannot relate personally and intellectually to the methodology they are supposedly implementing in their classes, then when things do not seem to be working out as expected, they may become confused, negative, and even hostile. Their resulting insecurity cannot help but be transmitted to the students, with predictably negative results.

By way of solution to this problem, grounding teacher education in linguistic and learning theory would be a step in the right direction, for it would allow teachers to interpret and evaluate methodological dicta within a meaningful context. The drawback here, however, is also obvious: if teacher education limits itself to the presentation, understanding, and application of some particular theory, then teachers run the risk of being unable to adapt to any significant change in the prevailing theory of language teaching or learning.

The true solution lies in training teachers to become informed consumers of research, so that they can understand and deal actively with the relationship between research and theory generation. If people are trained to be consumers of research, then they will be challenged rather than threatened by changing or evolving theories of language or language learning. The implications for practice will be clear and encouraging to them.

In a related matter, the committee noted that the role structure within the profession needs to be clarified. Fundamentally, it is felt that an individual cannot be a full-time teacher, and also be expected to be a professional researcher as well. Each of these tasks requires and deserves the total dedication of the individual, and the reward system that operates with respect to both teachers and researchers must acknowledge and accommodate this reality. This is especially important at the university level.

With respect to professional fragmentation as distinct from the institutional fragmentation just discussed, the need to develop mechanisms for the rapid reporting of ongoing research was cited. The most obvious solution here lies not in the creation of yet another journal which would specialize in short reports and other statements of findings and/or progress reports, but in a recognition on the part of existing journals of the need for this kind of coverage of the activities of the profession. Preliminary indications are that at least two editors of major journals understand this need, and are willing to take positive action on it very soon.

Conclusion

The discussion reported in this paper is intended to draw together in relatively general terms the findings reported in much greater detail in the position papers of Jarvis, Cooper, and Krashen printed elsewhere in this volume. It is hoped that these remarks will be helpful to the readers in synthesizing their own position with respect to the issues presented, and in aiding them to place the other papers in a unified context.

How To Break Out of the Never-Ending Circle of Retraining: A Self-Adjusting Mechanism for the 1980s

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Most professions and, indeed, most occupations have some kind of retraining mechanism built into them. Physicians learn about the latest drugs and therapy techniques soon after they are developed. Attorneys manage to keep up-to-date on the latest legal developments as a necessary part of serving their clients well. Salesmen learn the characteristics of new products in order to present them effectively to prospective buyers. And even assembly line workers are retrained as a matter of course when a new product comes onto the line. In the teaching profession, however, the need for occupational updating has seldom been taken seriously. In the local schools, "inservice" often consists of little more than a few informational or inspirational sessions scattered at random through the school year. The teacher is presumed to have acquired all the basic knowledge, techniques, and human relations skills after having completed an approved teaching training program and having taught for a year or two. The implication is that retraining needs will be taken care of through independent study, conferences, workshops, graduate school course work, and summer school programs. The fact that many states have begun to do away with the lifetime certificate and that they are demanding recertification after a certain period of time (three to five years) suggests a growing dissatisfaction with the current state of affairs. This development seems to be a step in the right direction. On the other hand, it could result in teachers doing little more than collecting a certain number of credits periodically which may or may not have anything to do with their professional improvement. With the rapid expansion of knowledge, it would seem imperative that some way be found not only to make knowledge available, but also to select that which teachers most need, to make it widely available in some comprehensible form, and to assist them in putting the new knowledge into use in the classroom. All of this implies that there are institutions willing to perform the necessary training and retraining tasks and that they are able to do so. In view of the historical persistence of the problem, it can no longer be taken for granted that existing educational agencies can or will do what needs to be done. This situation exists to a certain extent in all disciplines. However, in elective subjects, such as foreign languages, the need for corrective action is more readily evident. Significant declines in the percentages of students choosing to study languages cannot be ignored.

Thus, an extremely serious aspect of the training-retraining cycle alluded to in the title of this paper relates to the fact that many teachers are in need of retraining on the very day that they are first certified as teachers of foreign language. Complaints about this situation can be heard from both ends of the academic ladder. On the one hand, university people refer to the inadequate teaching of their high school colleagues as evidenced by the low quality of entering freshmen. On the other hand, public school administrators and supervisors cite the inadequate job of teacher preparation that has been done by the university as evidenced by teachers who can neither teach not speak the foreign language.[1] This kind of interchange probably serves no useful purpose. It tends to promote inaction by shifting the blame for mutal problems onto one of the parties, thereby avoiding progress toward a solution.

This leads us logically to the question of what changes need to be made in the existing system. To do this, we first need to identify what the system is like and where its problems lie. The recent Presidential Commission report, *Strength Through Wisdom*, has summarized the sad state of affairs regarding the lack of involvement of most Americans in foreign language study. As the report noted, 85 percent of all high school pupils are presently excluded from the study of a foreign language, and very few of those study the language for more than two years. At the same time, we have a large portion of the international business community attesting to the importance of language study.[2] Also, a majority of the American public—according to a recent Gallup poll—see language study as being important for *all* students.[3] Further, there is a body of research that suggests that second language learning is strongly associated with increased academic achievement, greater creativity, improved conceptual understanding of language per se, and better cultural understanding.[4] Another study in a large urban school district has shown that the overwhelming majority of students who elect languages expect to come away with the ability to communicate in the language and to develop some understanding of the people who speak it.[5] Yet despite the potential educational value of foreign language study for all students, only a small percentage of any given age group chooses to enroll in foreign language study for more than a year or two. The profession has tried to place the blame for low enrollments on ethnocentrism, anti-intellectualism, negative advice from guidance counselors, bad scheduling, and other factors that lie outside the profession. While these factors may indeed be part of the problem, it is time to look inward rather than trying to place blame on people and cultural patterns over which the profession has little control. And, if we look closely at our professional situation, we see the following general pattern:

(1) Foreign language departments in higher education are still oriented mainly toward literary and linguistic research rather than toward language acquisition and the realities of contemporary culture. Prestige and financial rewards do not favor those who achieve excellence in either language teaching or pedagogical expertise.

(2) High school teachers are influenced directly and indirectly by the situation in higher education. First, they tend to teach as they were taught by literary specialists in higher education who may or may not use the foreign language in a communicative way in their own teaching. Second, they are exposed to a professional environment in which it is often clear that cultural knowledge and language teaching are at a lower prestige level than literary and linguistic research. Third, the methods course and practicum are often too brief to develop the requisite teaching skills needed for highly professional performance in the classroom. Fourth, they are saturated with the attitude that foreign language study is only for the highly motivated, intellectually superior, college-bound student who has potential for literary or linguistic scholarship. If these attitudes and behaviors are carried over into the public school teaching context, it is a foregone conclusion that a majority of students in most high schools will see little personal relevance in the program. For many students, the message is clear: "Foreign language is for those other people; not for me." Therefore, in many cases, the guidance counselors are not a *cause* of low enrollments; they are simply reflecting realities established by the language teacher and by the elitist orientation of the profession.

(3) At the same time the high school curriculum tends to be overloaded with content, based upon grammatical analysis and designed to provide preparation for subsequent literary or linguistic specialization. As a result, the curriculum is often ill-suited to meeting the humanistic and communicative goals which students, parents, international business groups, and governmental agencies perceive to be of value and to which local high school curricula often give lip service.

Thus, it would appear that teachers of foreign language at all levels have not been exempt from the retraining problem. In fact, it is often the case that they are not only unaware of the *new* knowledge that is being generated but that they are also unacquainted with much of the useful *old* knowledge. For example, in conducting workshops in various parts of the country over the past few years, I have found that many teachers have never heard of—much less learned how to use—a Gouin series, a technique which has been around for 100 years. Also, the available data on classroom pupil-teacher interaction suggests that a significant number of language teachers do not use the foreign language regularly in the classroom and are unable to get students to use the foreign language beyond the level of rote drill responses.[6] Yet many teachers want to acquire the ability to develop their own communicative skills and those of their students as evidenced by the popularity of workshops and conferences which address themselves to such matters.

On the positive side, there is evidence that a number of teachers have acquired the instructional skills which enable their students to perform at a level that was rarely found in the pre-Sputnik era. I have seen first semester freshmen at the university level who could write compositions that were virtually error-free and exhibiting a style and sophistication that would be fully acceptable to educated native speakers. In addition, there are many high school graduates who have demonstrated their ability to sustain a serious conversation with native speakers of the language. Thus, it could be incorrect to say that no progress has been made as a result of local, state, and foreign language staff development efforts over the last two decades. We have, in fact, enough of this kind of successful result to enable the profession to generate suggested models for improving both the preservice and inservice aspects of foreign language teacher education. An examination of these possible future directions is one purpose of this paper.

Language Skills

Jorstad has summarized the research regarding teacher preparation and has noted that the one consistent finding over the years with respect to the teacher's ability in the use of language skills has to do with residence and study abroad.[7] The recommendation that teachers should demonstrate a high level of skill in the use of language is supported by national teacher certification directors and by the 1966 recommendation on teacher education as presented in the October issue of *The Modern Language Journal* of that year.[8] Hence, it would appear that residence abroad in a country where the target language is spoken should be established as a requirement for any program offering any modern foreign language. Teacher fluency in all language skills and residence in an appropriate overseas location should be listed as high priority items for foreign language study in the 1980s and beyond.

Foreign Language Pedagogy

In itself, the teacher's ability to speak the language is not enough to ensure that students will also develop those skills. Many of us in the profession are aware of native or near-native speakers who conduct their classes in English, allowing little or no time for students to either hear or speak the language. A common complaint against teachers who are perfectly capable of using the foreign language is that they "just don't know how to get students to respond in the foreign language." Hence it would appear that the methods component of teacher training and retraining should include an expanded segment on maximizing student use of the foreign language in and out of the classroom. This should include not only the commonly used exercises which involve students in giving responses to predetermined stimuli, but should also include communicative use of language in which students exhibit the ability to originate responses based on ideas and feelings that they themselves want to express. Also needed is a comprehensive syllabus of instructional techniques that should be in the repertoire of any teacher of second languages. The pedagogical research with respect to student learning styles and linguistic research in the area of error analysis suggests that no single, doctrinaire approach to language acquisition will account for the learning needs of all students. Therefore, it seems reasonable to expect that all teachers of foreign language should have at their disposal the full range of techniques that have been used historically by successful language teachers in addition to newer, emerging instructional approaches. Thus, a second major priority for the 80s would be to help all teachers learn how to identify their areas of strength and weakness with regard to instructional techniques for teaching culture as well as the language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). Pursuant to this end, existing assessment devices should be more widely used to assist teachers in diagnosing their own areas of need (as well as excellence) with regard to the classroom use of pedagogical techniques and strategies. For example, the criteria developed by Knop for supervising student-teachers could be useful in this regard.[9] Some examples of this are given below. The format has been modified to meet the needs of experienced teachers rather than beginners. Since the teachers who will be using this instrument are already certified, the items are in no way intended to question that status. Instead, they are to be used as a means of helping language teachers to determine areas in which they may wish to update their knowledge and skills in much the same manner that other professionals such as doctors and lawyers constantly acquire new knowledge that is necessary for them to work effectively with their clientele.

Rating Scale

In order to convert subjective judgments into some kind of workable measurement, we suggest that the following values be attached:

0 - This never happens.

1 - This happens only once in a while.

2 - This happens about a third of the time.

3 - This happens about half of the time.

4 - This happens about two-thirds of the time.

5 - This happens all the time with rare exceptions.

Use of the Self-Evaluation Instrument

As a basis for objective self-evaluation, it is recommended that the teacher do an audiotape of classroom sessions at three widely spaced perids of time during the school year. This would, of course, be done during a "typical" class period each time. Thus, it would be wise to avoid unusual periods such as the day before vacation, or a class session involving guest speakers.

The results of the evaluation may indicate areas in which a teacher would like to improve. The logical follow-up step is to seek appropriate inservice activities aimed at strengthening instruction. The focus of professional activity then becomes directed to very practical, specific techniques for improvement. In larger school districts, teachers may get together and discover that a number of people have the same area (i.e., lesson planning, classroom techniques, or class climate) in which they perceive a need to improve. In such cases, inservice activities can be directed toward a group process consisting of teachers who have identified similar needs.

The instrument is based upon a democratic, cooperative theory of supervision which carries with it the following assumptions:

(1) Teachers are fully capable of honest self-evaluation because, as professionals, they want to improve their classroom performance and update their skills;

(2) This type of self-evaluation should not be used for merit rating, salary considerations, or promotion, because such extrinsic considerations tend to bias the outcome and to direct attention away from the self-improvement purpose of the evaluation;

(3) Self-improvement inservice activities will be much more effective if they are directed toward meeting very practical, specific instructional needs;

(4) Many of the attributes of successful language teaching can be identified, learned, and adapted by other teachers in a way which is consistent with individual personality characteristics and teaching style.

____

(Date of evaluation)

A. Lesson Planning

1. I include a "warm-up" activity detivity designed to build students' confidence and to establish a positive mindset toward learning the foreign language. 0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
2. I provide an overview for each learning activity so that students know exactly what they are supposed to do. 0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
3. I have a variety of techniques planned for each class session. 0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
4. Each activity is short enough to avoid boredom (i.e., 10-15 minutes in length). 0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
5. I provide for clear transitions between activities so that the students are all aware of the changes in activity that are to take place. 0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
6. I mix familiar material from earlier lessons with the new material to be presented. 0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
7. I provide for work on several language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing).
8. Lessons are planned in detail. 0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5

Rating Scale

0 - This never happens.

1 - This happens only once in a while.

2 - This happens about a third of the time.

3 - This happens about half of the time.

4 - This happens about two-thirds of the time.

5 - This happens all the time with rare exceptions.

B. Classroom Techniques

1. I use the foreign language throughout the period. 0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
2. I call on *all* students. 0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
3. I use learning checks constantly to determine if students really understand what they are repeating and can apply it to new contexts. 0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
4. I see to it that a major part of the class period involves the students in using the foreign language (listening, speaking, reading, writing). 0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
5. Student foreign language responses include a mix of choral (total class) work, group work, and individual work. 0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
6. Foreign language work is personalized so that students learn how to apply the foreign language material to their own lives and surroundings, including classroom communication. 0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
7. In correcting errors, I provide cues which help students learn how to monitor their errors and self-correct. 0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
8. I use small group activities involving from two to four students. 0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
9. I use visuals to convey or to reinforce meaning and to stimulate free responses. 0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
10. I use visuals to teach culture. 0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5

Rating Scale

0 - This never happens.

1 - This happens only once in awhile.

2 - This happens about a third of the time.

3 - This happens about half of the time.

4 - This happens about two-thirds of the time.

5 - This happens all the time with rare exceptions.

C. Class Climate

1. In general, students volunteer to respond in the foreign language during the class period. 0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
2. Students have prepared their lessons thoroughly so they are 0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5

ready to respond most of the time.	
3. Students are active learners of the foreign language during the entire class period.	0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
4. Students relate positively to each other in the foreign language during the class period.	0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
5. I provide a variety of rewards for answers which are correct or partially correct, focusing always on that which is right in a student's response rather than on mistakes.	0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5
6. I use the foreign language as a means of communication in the classroom and so do the students. (That is, I greet the students in the foreign language. I comment on their responses in the foreign language. The students speak to me and to each other in the foreign language).	0 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5

Rating Scale

0 - This never happens.
1 - This happens only once in a while
2 - This happens about a third of the time.
3 - This happens about half of the time.
4 - This happens about two thirds of the time.
5 - This happens all the time with rare exceptions.

Culture and International Studies

The orientation of this position paper is that the learning of language for most students is a means to an end rather than an end in itself. Thus, the learning of such things as grammar, phonology, and syntax should be viewed as functional activities aimed at helping students to move as rapidly as possible into receiving and expressing ideas, feelings, and information by means of the second language. Thus, a major content area should be the culture and civilization of one or more of the countries in which the target language is spoken. The words of W. Freeman Twaddell are as relevant today as they were in 1966 when he stated:

> "A community's language is one of its principal cultural components; and it is also the medium through which most of the community's behaviors and beliefs are transmitted to new generations and through which most of its highly valued intellectual process as well as its practical routine procedures must take place. Only the most superficial and unreliable knowledge about a culture is possible without knowing its language; and vice versa.
>
> Hence one major element of a language program is provision of guidance toward an awareness of a different culture, along with and by means of its language."[18]

The Certification Process

An additional contributing factor to the problem of retraining has to do with the entire process of certification as implemented by state departments of public instruction and other certifying agencies. According to standards established by state and national accreditation bodies, teachers are to demonstrate proficiency in a series of areas which, presumably, make them qualified to teach given subjects at specified instructional levels. In reality, however, proficiency is usually validated by the completion of certain courses in general studies, other courses in education and still other courses in subject area disciplines which relate to the individual's major and minor fields. Thus, program approval visits often become involved in the politics and mechanics of required courses for the teacher candidate, irrespective of whether or not the courses have any relevance to the process of teaching. Thus, for example, a highly technical course in generative grammar may serve to fulfill part of a linguistics requirement even though the course may be largely irrelevant to foreign language instruction. Similarly meaningless courses may be required in the education component and in the language department itself. From the student's standpoint, what emerges from all of this is a fragmented and unrelated series of credit courses which make sense only at the crude level of tallying semester hours or quarter hours. When one has piled up a certain number of credits in a certain pattern of courses over a certain number of years, then that person is eligible for a teaching certificate by simply submitting a form to the accrediting agency and enclosing the required fee. A brief student-teaching experience and a practicum may provide some opportunity for the prospective teacher to pull some loose threads of course work together into a sensible pattern. But even here the exposure is often minimal with little or no meaningful feedback from a master teacher, a person who is well versed in instructional methods and who is familiar with the language being taught and the instructional level of the students involved.

During the 1960s, the profession tried to approach the problem of certifying proficiency rather than dealing only with accumulating semester hours. The *MLA Tests for Teachers and Advanced Students* were developed in the hope of giving the profession a set of valid, reliable instruments for measuring competence in the language skills, pedagogy, culture, and linguistics. Subsequent events have led many people in the profession to question whether this battery or any other battery of normed, standardized tests can be more than a partial answer to the problems of certifying proficiency. The tests of culture, pedagogy, and linguistics were particularly susceptible to becoming outdated. And there is also the possibility that such tests are more suited to controlled research activities than they are to formative evaluation of professionals. Perhaps a better evaluative model could be derived from other disciplines in which direct observation of performance is required. For example, the skill of downhill racing is measured by direct observations of a skier going downhill rather than by the ability to pass a standardized, multiple-choice test on the various sub-skills related to skiing. Similarly, a better model for evaluating student-teachers might be one which required them to implement their own lesson plans using the foreign language with real students of the appropriate age and—with the help of videotaping—learning to evaluate their own performance in teaching and language use. (Concurrently, they would be taught how to evaluate their own performance as teachers and how to monitor and improve their performance in the foreign language.) Of equal importance would be an attitudinal commitment to lifelong improvement in both areas. However, it seems self-evident that such a commitment is unlikely to develop unless the university personnel directing the training are also exemplary in their commitment to language learning, to constant growth in pedagogical sophistication, to the maintenance of high standards of performance, and to service to the language teaching profession. It is also clear that language departments and schools of education must direct their attention and resources to these areas by giving adequate prestige and monetary rewards to those who excel in teaching and pedagogical research. Such rewards should be on a par with those given to professors who are outstanding in literary, linguistic, and educational research. Failure of language departments and schools of education to respond leaves the profession with various alternatives.

One alternative would be to set at least the same standards for college and university teachers that are required of those whom they are educating to teach in the elementary, junior high, and senior high schools of the nation. It might be viewed as ironic that the people who are being trained to teach in the public schools must meet certain standards while the people who are doing the training generally have neither standards nor an accountability process to attest to their ability to teach or to perform in the language. Based on the assumption that many people who become public school teachers "teach as they were taught," it seems appropriate to suggest that effective teaching, knowledge of pedagogy, and ability to teach by means of the target language should be minimal standards and common expectations for foreign language teachers at any level, including the graduate and undergraduate levels of higher education.

The second alternative is to conduct "business as usual" and to continue the cycles of failure that have characterized foreign language programs in America since World War I. In every other developed nation in the modern world, virtually all students have a significant exposure to the study of a second language. In the United States, foreign languages continue to be regarded as a frill or an elitist curiosity as far as the general public is concerned. Perhaps the development of a cadre of competent foreign language teachers who are committed to a professional career of self-improvement is not the entire answer, but it would seem to be a worthwhile goal. In this regard, I suggest that we set high standards of performance and find a way to implement them at all levels. The following five standards are from a working paper that has been reviewed and modified by many people in Wisconsin:

Standards for an Approved Program in Foreign Languages

Standard I - The program shall provide the development of skill in the use of the target language including:

a. The skill necessary to understand the foreign language as spoken by a native at a normal conversational tempo.
b. The skill necessary to speak the language with sufficient command of vocabulary, phonology, and syntax to carry on conversations with native speakers.
c. The skill necessary to read with immediate comprehension and without translation in the target language.
d. The skill necessary to write the target language at a level of clarity and correctness which is acceptable to native speakers.
e. The skill necessary to conduct classroom activities exclusively in the target language.

Standard II - The program shall provide for the development of skills in language analysis including:

a. The ability to analyze the phonology, morphology, and syntax of the foreign language and be able to clarify the differences and similarities between the native and target languages.
b. The ability to incorporate the knowledge derived from applied linguistics in presenting the foreign language to students.
c. The ability to devise drills and exercises that develop student awareness of the structure of both the native and the target language.
d. The ability to guide students toward free, personalized conversation in the foreign language.

Standard III - The program shall provide for the development of knowledge and skills necessary to teach the culture of the target language using that language as the primary instructional vehicle including:

a. The ability to classify the principal ways in which the foreign culture resembles and differs from the native culture.
b. The ability to present geography, history, social customs, literature, art, and music, and their role in the contemporary civilization of the foreign culture.
c. The ability to draw from personal experience in order to create a variety of learning situations which bring the reality of the target culture closer to the student.
d. The ability to develop, encourage, and promote participation by students in activities and events which reflect the contemporary ways of life of the target culture.

Standard IV - The program shall provide for the development of abilities necessary to plan and implement foreign language instruction including:

a. The ability to interpret and evaluate the evolving objectives of education in the United States and the place of foreign language in this context, e.g., be aware of changing needs of students, make foreign language more student-oriented and community-oriented.
b. The ability to demonstrate an understanding of the nature of learning in general and language learning in particular, e.g., be effective in dealing with aspects of motivation, implementation of teaching methods, individualization of instruction and evaluation.
c. The ability to analyze the nature of the learner and the difference in learners at the elementary and secondary levels.
d. The ability to evaluate student learning and progress and plan class activities and individual conferences in the light of that analysis.
e. The ability to adapt to teaching models which provide for individual differences of students.
f. The ability to evaluate materials and media and select those which will help students most in the learning process.
g. The ability to acquire and implement where appropriate new ideas and techniques in foreign language in order to narrow the gap between current research and incipient trends on the one hand and classroom practices on the other.
h. The ability to evaluate major research studies in foreign language education and identify the major contributions of that research.
i. The ability to implement experimental designs in the classroom.
j. The ability for self-evaluation of classroom performance.
k. The ability to demonstrate techniques designed to stimulate and develop among students feelings of self-worth and personal integrity.
l. The ability to stimulate and develop in students active enthusiasm for course materials and continual use of the target language by students for learning tasks and classroom interactons.

Standard V - The program shall provide for the development of professional awareness and responsibility including:

a. Showing evidence of a general liberal education to complement the foreign language specialization.
b. Possessing a good understanding of the foreign language curriculum and being committed to its implementation.
c. Displaying a sense of responsibility for professional growth and demonstrating through example that foreign language teaching is a continuously developing profession.
d. Being informed about periodicals and books in the field of foreign language study.
e. Giving evidence of active participation in inservice workshops, conferences, seminars, and in professional organizations.

f. Displaying the ability to cooperate in developing continuity in foreign language programs.
g. Being aware of the responsibility to help in curriculum planning, articulation, and coordination of the foreign language program.

Standard VI - The program shall provide for the development of knowledge and application of areas related to the teaching of foreign languages including:

a. Learning to work with students whose first language is not English.
b. Learning to work with students who have handicapping conditions (hearing, sight, physical).
c. Helping foreign language students, teachers, and administrators see how foreign language study relates to other areas of the curriculum.

Standards of the type listed above should be established as minimal expectancies for teacher and student-teacher performance.[11] It should not be assumed that the knowledge or skill has been achieved merely because the student-teacher or teacher had completed a seemingly appropriate university level course. Instead, performance should be validated through supervisory and self-evaluation techniques that incline the teacher toward career-long improvement. In American education, small incentives combined with "moral suasion" and a sense of mission can lead to greatly improved programs. It is time for us to achieve a consensus on the training and retraining mission, to urge legislative support for the necessary incentives for improving foreign language instruction at all instructional levels and to remain resolute in our belief that the learning of a second language is basic to citizenship in America today and tomorrow.

NOTES

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2. National Council on Foreign Languages and International Studies is one example of business-related support of language study. Financial support comes from the Ford, Rockefeller, Hewlett, and Exxon Education Foundations. The Council is located at 605 Third Avenue (17th Floor), New York, NY, 10016.

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4. Gilbert A. Jarvis, "The Value of Second Language Learning," in Frank M. Grittner, ed., *NSSE Yearbook, Learning of a Second Language* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1980), pp. 26-43.

5. Jermaine D. Arendt and Marcia Hallock, "Windmills and Dragons," in Jermaine D. Arendt, *et al.*, eds, *Foreign Language Learning, Today and Tomorrow* (New York: Pergamon Press, 1979).

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7. Helen L. Jorstad, "The Education and Reeducation of Teachers," in Frank M. Grittner, ed., *NSSE Yearbook, Learning of a Second Language* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1980), pp. 168-85.

8. F. Andrew Paquette, ed., "Guidelines for Teacher Education Programs in Modern Foreign Languages—An Exposition," *The Modern Language Journal*, 1 (1966), 1-103.

9. Constance K. Knop, "The Supervision of Foreign Language Teachers," in Frank M. Grittner, ed., *NSSE Yearbook, Learning a Second Language* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1980), pp. 186-207.

10. W. Freeman Twaddell, "Developing Cultural Awareness," in F. Andrew Paquette, ed., "Guidelines for Teacher Education Programs in Modern Foreign Languages—An Exposition," *The Modern Language Journal*, 1(1966), 29.

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Preservice Teacher Education: Some Thoughts for the 1980s

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In these early years of the 1980s, foreign language teachers have some reason for optimism. After a decade characterized by the toppling of language requirements, declining enrollments at all levels, and a glutted job market, we are beginning to see a reawakening of interest in foreign language study. Several prestigious universities have reaffirmed the concept of a liberal education and have reinstated a foreign language requirement. The President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies, viewing this trend as a positive sign but not as a sufficient remedy for America's scandalous incompetence in foreign languages, has made a number of specific recommendations for the study of foreign languages and cultures at all levels and has called for funding for these to be made available from a variety of sources, both public and private.[1] Once implemented, some of these recommendations will have a direct bearing on preservice teacher education; all of them will affect it indirectly.

At the same time that we in foreign languages are being challenged to action by the President's Commission, a strong movement for reform in teacher education in general seems to be emerging. A recent issue of the *Phi Delta Kappan* was devoted entirely to this topic and contained numerous recommendations which would enable educators to shed their semi-professional status and to take their rightful place among the legitimate professions.[2] Among other exhortations, these articles called for more clinical experiences, greater quality control, longer periods of preservice training, and the funding which would make these improvements possible. It would seem, then, that this is a particularly appropriate time to examine the content and process of preservice foreign language teacher education and to make recommendations for the coming years.

Preservice teacher education is a broad and complex issue and one which is difficult to treat satisfactorily in a paper of this length. In an attempt to avoid, on the one hand, becoming bogged down in detail, and, on the other, writing a paper which is so general as to be meaningless, I have chosen to list a series of observations and recommendations for the profession to consider as we plan for the coming years. Much more could be written about any single item within the series. Members of the profession, therefore, are invited not simply to read the following pages as a kind of checklist against which to measure their present programs but also to contribute to the literature of teacher education by elaborating on the ideas briefly sketched out here.

The observations and recommendations which follow have been organized into six clusters, each dealing with a key facet of preservice teacher education. These facets are: basic and intermediate language instruction; advanced study of language, literature, and culture; the professional education component; the transition period; quality control; and research and reform. Needless to say, these divisions overlap to some extent. This is particularly true of the last two divisions; however, for the sake of focus, it seems appropriate to treat each topic separately before drawing together their commonalities.

Basic and Intermediate Instruction: The Buck Stops Here

(1) Our concept of preservice education should be extended to include the basic and intermediate courses which lay the groundwork for all subsequent development of skills and knowledge.

(2) The recruitment and selection processes which are so vital to the well-being of any profession begin with the students' earliest language experience. Those who fail to continue language study after the first year or first semester have, for all intents and purposes, been selected out of the pool of prospective foreign language teachers.

(3) All foreign language teachers serve as role models for prospective teachers; therefore, any efforts at upgrading inservice teachers, including graduate teaching assistants, will ultimately affect preservice training.

(4) We as a profession should examine the innovations of the last decade to determine which of these have really advanced our ability to teach language and culture and which have merely served to maintain our jobs. House-cleaning of this type will improve preservice training by helping to preserve the integrity of courses at all levels.

(5) Longer sequences of language study should be instituted wherever possible. All other things being equal, the prospective teacher who has had six years of language instruction before entering college will have a better command of the language than the one who begins language study at the college level.

Advanced Courses in Language, Literature and Culture: The Heart of the Matter

(1) Departments of foreign languages should provide advanced courses in language and culture as well as in literature; a course in contemporary culture should be required of preservice teachers.

(2) The consistent failure of our undergraduate programs to produce students capable of using the language in which they have specialized is well documented and constitutes a notable shortcoming of preservice teacher education.

(3) Skills development should become a primary objective of all subject area courses for preservice language teachers. A literature course, for example, can be designed to involve *listening* to lectures and recordings, *writing* reports and examination questions, and participating in *oral* presentations and discussions as well as the *reading* of literary texts.

(4) We tend to approach curriculum reform with the idea that observed deficiencies justify additional courses. A more efficient approach would be to find out what students actually do and do not do in the courses presently offered and to use that information to reform courses from within.

(5) All undergraduate language students, and particularly prospective teachers, should have the opportunity to participate

in a variety of instructional procedures incorporated into their subject area courses. These might include participating in videotaped role-playing, working with computer-assisted instruction, making presentations which involve the use of media, tutoring other students, organizing and participating in debates, interviewing native speakers, and doing self-instructional laboratory assignments.

(6) Contact with native speakers of the target language and their culture is highly desirable for preservice teachers. Opportunities for such interaction should be provided by colleges through language clubs, programs abroad, and summer immersion programs which simulate the foreign environment.

(7) In any undergraduate program leading to certification, the number of hours spent observing others teach far exceeds the number of hours devoted to formal, professional training. It is important not to underestimate the effects of this experience on the prospective teacher's ultimate teaching style.

The Professional Component: Theory and Practice

(1) Traditional mistrust between language and literature specialists, between school teachers and college professors, and between Colleges of Humanities and Colleges of Education must be laid aside if we are to improve preservice education significantly.

(2) The professional component of the preservice preparation of secondary teachers generally accounts for less than fifteen percent of that preparation.

(3) The conventional model for the professional component of preservice teaching has remained substantially unchanged for the last fifty years and is likely to remain the prevalent model for this decade at least. This model consists of a course sequence which includes introduction to education, social foundations, educational psychology, methods courses, and practice teaching.

(4) Attempts should be made to identify prospective teachers early and to provide them with field and laboratory experiences prior to the methods course and student-teaching.

(5) The humanistic movement in education with its emphasis on the whole person cautions against focusing exclusively on any single aspect of teacher training.

(6) Professional training programs should provide personal counseling as well as course advice for prospective teachers. If possible, training in stress management should be offered as well.

(7) Whenever enrollments justify language-specific methods courses, these should be provided.

(8) Several institutions with qualified personnel should offer preservice training for FLES, ESL, and bilingual/bicultural programs.

(9) Methods courses should be problem-centered with a variety of approaches applied to each problem. Some of the approaches should involve prospective teachers in the use of various media.

(10) Microteaching and other simulation experiences should be given a prominent role in the methods course. Periods of teaching should alternate with periods of observation and reflection.

(11) Prospective teachers should be trained in at least one system designed to analyze classroom interaction. Fanselow's FOCUS system may be of particular interest to foreign language teachers.

(12) Teachers entering the schools in the 1980s will very probably have to deal with handicapped students. Methods courses should introduce students to strategies which will enable them to teach students with impaired sight and hearing as well as other deficiencies.

(13) Because of the overwhelming influence of the cooperating teacher in the student-teaching triad, attention needs to be given to the identification and selection of *outstanding* classroom teachers to serve as model teachers during student teaching.

(14) Special incentives should be provided for inservice teachers who are selected to serve as cooperating teachers. These could take the form of matching funds for equipment and materials, special low-interest loans for study and travel abroad, or priority ratings in competition for summer institutes such as those suggested by the President's Commission.

(15) Student-teaching should provide for a gradual assumption of responsibilities and should be designed in such a way that periods of teaching alternate with periods of observation and reflection.

(16) Preservice teachers should be introduced to professional organizations and journals and become acquainted with the role of political action in education. All preservice teachers should be made aware of the President's Commission Report, for example.

The Transition Period: Learning How to Teach

(1) The beginning teacher who has participated in a number of real-world or simulated experiences not only in student-teaching but also through practical and methods courses will find the transition into the first job easier than one whose training has been largely theoretical.

(2) Preservice teacher preparation can provide prospective teachers with skills and knowledge which can help them become successful teachers, but it cannot teach them how to teach. This is usually learned during the first years of inservice teaching.[3]

(3) Foreign language teachers should join with other teacher educators to support the movement toward a fifth-year clinical experience or apprenticeship which would serve as a bridge between preservice and inservice teacher education.

(4) The profession should support improved systems for placing new teachers in satisfying jobs. Imaginative use of computer capabilities could eliminate much of the frustration of job-hunting.

(5) The profession should explore the possibility of providing support systems for beginning teachers, either through state departments of education or through local and state organizations.

Quality Control: The Process of Selection

(1) Recent statistics have shown that those students who choose to specialize in education score among the lowest of all groups taking the verbal and math sections of the SAT.[4] According to Watts, teaching is increasingly seen as a low-risk, last-chance profession selected by rejects from other professional programs.[5]

(2) Teaching is a complex and demanding profession which requires intelligence, caring, and commitment. Unless we can find ways of attracting students who possess these qualities, our efforts to improve preservice teaching will bear little fruit.

(3) A high priority for this decade must be the selection and recruitment of desirable candidates for teacher training.

(4) The process of selection and recruitment is the responsibility of the entire profession and will be successful to the extent that all language teachers at all levels participate in it.

(5) Admissions standards for teacher preparatory programs should be increased.

(6) Real-world experiences such as practica and student-teaching should be designed to provide the student with opportunities for self-selection into or out of the profession.

(7) A greater emphasis should be placed on training college supervisors, cooperating teachers, and student-teachers themselves in the use of systems for analyzing classroom interaction.

(8) What we have learned from the competency-based movement should be incorporated into the development of tests of language skills and knowledge appropriate for evaluating preservice teachers.

(9) Certifying bodies should explore the possibility of requiring a certain amount of supervised study and travel abroad prior to certification to teach a foreign language.

(10) There is a need for professional standards for foreign language teacher education programs. No matter how extensive, the accumulation of course credits and grades is not likely to change the quality of foreign language teaching significantly.

(11) The 1966 MLA Guidelines for Teacher Education Programs and the more recent guidelines published by the national TESOL Association and the Office of Bilingual Education should be examined for their potential contributions to the standards called for above.

Research and Reform: A Continuous Process

(1) Preservice education, because of the smaller numbers involved, offers a better starting point for pedagogical reform than does inservice education.

(2) Competency-based or performance-based models for professional education represent an important attempt at reform but, at present, our knowledge of essential competencies for language teachers remains too limited for universal generalization of the model.

(3) Reform in preservice teacher education will best be accomplished through a dual approach: (a) a gradual-improvement approach which seeks to ameliorate the present system through better recruitment, upgraded subject area and methods courses, improved counseling for students, more integration of laboratory and clinical experiences into the training program, and improved working relationships with local school personnel; and (b) an experimental approach which seeks to discover new models for teacher education and supervision.

(4) Some promising areas of investigation for preservice teacher education are: continued inquiry into the CBTE/PBTE and humanistic models of teacher training, increased investigation of (cognitive) developmental models of teacher training, efforts to determine why people choose teaching as a career and why they drop out of teaching, efforts to find out from inservice teachers the major problems they encountered during their early years, and to determine the relationship between certain aspects of preservice training and on-the-job performance.

(5) Teaching centers and institutes such as those recommended by the President's Commission should, like the great teaching hospitals, engage in the kind of experimentation and dissemination of information that will make their impact felt not only by the few selected to participate in their programs, but by the profession at large.

(6) Any attempt at reform in teacher education is complicated by the number and diversity of institutions in which it takes place. According to B. Othanel Smith, there are presently

> 1400 institutions in the United States engaged in the preservice training of teachers. Of these, 40 percent are private senior colleges with fewer than 1,000 students and very few specialists in pedagogy, and 60 percent represent a loose collection of institutions of various sizes and capabilities.[6]

It should be clear that no single statement on preservice education could adequately address the myriad concerns of the disparate institutions characterized by Smith; yet all of them certainly have a number of vital interests in common. It is my hope that the observations and recommendations which constitute the main body of this paper will serve not only to stimulate these teacher-training institutions to rethink their individual programs, but also to bring together these same educators in a united effort to improve the quality of preservice education.

Basically, I have argued for more attention to the processes of recruitment and selection; greater commitment on the part of *all* language instructors to the preparation of teachers; increased emphasis on the development of language skills in all subject area courses; the incorporation into subject area and methods courses of a variety of instructional techniques, some of which involve the use of media; more and earlier field and clinical experiences for prospective teachers; inclusion in the preservice program of first-hand experiences with native speakers of the language and with the foreign culture; the identification and upgrading of key figures in the teacher education process; methods courses and student-teaching experiences which combine theory with practice and which make extensive use of various systems of interaction analysis; and the extension of pre-professional training through a fifth-year clinical apprenticeship. In addition, I have indicated a number of areas for experimentation to be undertaken by teacher-training institutions with strong research capabilities or by centers established for that purpose.

As was stated earlier in this paper, the President's Commission Report and the growing agitation for reform of teacher education would seem to make the present decade a particularly favorable time for reevaluating and improving preservice education. A final word of caution is in order here, however. While it is certainly desirable to increase the quality of teachers entering the field through higher admissions standards, required study abroad, and an additional year of training for existing teacher preparation programs, we must not forget that many of our most promising students may reject teaching because of what awaits them at the end of the training program. Discouraged by talk of low salaries, violence in the schools, unfavorable working conditions, and low prestige, they may, by selecting themselves out of the pool of prospective teachers, render useless our best efforts at reform. As we continue into the 1980s, then, we must assume an attitude that is realistic as well as hopeful.

Unless we as a profession join with other teachers to bring about an amelioration of conditions in the field, we may be accused of indulging in fantasy instead of facing the realities which should be apparent to us as trainers of foreign language teachers for the coming decades.

NOTES

1. James A. Perkins, "Strength through Wisdom: A Critique of U. S. Capability," *The Modern Language Journal*, 64 (1980), p. 12.

2. *Phi Delta Kappan* 62, 2 (October 1980).

3. Virginia Koehler, "The Future of Teacher Preparation and Research on Teaching," *Theory into Practice*, 18, 3 (1979), p. 201.

4. Doyle Watts, "Admissions Standards for Teacher Preparatory Programs: Time for a Change," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 62 (1980), p. 120.

5. *Ibid.*, p. 120.

6. B. Othanel Smith, "Pedagogical Education: How About Reform?" *Phi Delta Kappan*, 62 (1980), p. 87.

Inservice Teacher Education: Content and Process

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Effective inservice education for language teachers can renew and invigorate programs at all levels, and it is thus one of the most crucial issues in language teaching today. At a time when teacher needs are most compelling, however, the ability and/or willingness of institutions of higher education (IHEs) and school or district administrative personnel to provide creative programs is decreasing due to budget problems, underutilized and frustrated faculties, and lack of commitment to seeking creative programming for teachers in service.

Part I of this paper will explore the content of inservice programs which can renew the professional backgrounds of language teachers. Part II will examine alternative vehicles for such retraining.

Content for Inservice Teacher Programs

Teachers who have worked in a classroom at any level need a variety of learning experiences; moreover, each teacher probably needs *different* experiences in a number of areas. A wide variety of such experiences is not commonly offered at present.

Language Skill Renewal and Development

While some teachers have many opportunities to travel in a country where their language is spoken, more do not have such opportunities. It is doubtful, in any case, that a university course in "Eighteenth Century Drama" would meet the very real language needs of teachers, especially since such courses are often taught in English, even at the graduate level. Moreover, on many campuses there are few language enrichment courses suitable for teachers during after-school hours or on weekends. IHEs must provide ways for teachers to take (1) language courses; (2) linguistics and structure courses in their language; (3) literature courses in which the focus is on reading magazines, newspapers, and other authentic documents in the language; folklore; children's or adolescent literature; survey or genre courses which treat materials which young people might enjoy reading; and (4) culture, which should include way-of-life culture not only of the principal country where the language is spoken, but also of other regions, such as francophone Africa, French Canada, Latin America, Austria, etc., Music, games, and dances should also be included, if possible. It goes without saying that language courses for teachers must be taught in the target language.

Language courses should provide opportunities for teachers to maintain all their language skills at the "Good" or "Superior" range defined in current guidelines.[1]

Cultural Understanding

Despite the fact that an often-stated goal for elementary and secondary language programs is the understanding of other cultures, our foreign language programs are not generally meeting that goal. Both cultural content and an explicit process for learning to understand and teach about another culture are needed, especially with the expansion of global education and middle-school programs.

The following example from a publication of the state of Minnesota shows one way of using such an explicit process, first with a phenomenon from U.S. life and then with a French example. This example is included to show in a step-by-step fashion one way of involving the language learners in an inductive process through which they set out to discover and understand aspects of the foreign culture by a form of "hypothesis refinement." It also helps to clarify a new role for the language teacher in this process away from one as keeper of all knowledge and toward one as director for student learning. It also emphasizes the ongoing nature of learning about culture.[2]

Steps in Using Hypothesis-Refinement to Learn about Culture	**Example of Classroom Activity**
Step 1: Students perceive an aspect of culture through learning materials, teacher presentation, or other sources.	Students notice that grandparents rarely are included in American family life.
Step 2: Students make a statement about the culture as a result of this perception.	Resulting statement: Older people in American society tend to live apart from their grown children and their grandchildren.
Step 3: Students seek multiple sources for information related to the statement, such as newspapers, movies, slides, books, as well as other media, realia, and native speakers.	Students search magazines for pictures of family groups in ads, features, and articles; they search newspapers for information. They find "Menus for Senior Citizens" column in daily paper which indicates places where they can apparently eat inexpensively. They relate incidents from TV shows about family life—situation comedies, news documentaries, etc. They talk to friends and older people.

***Step 4:* Students question and compare their sources, examining them for potential limitations, such as publication date, intended audience, and purpose of document.**

a. They describe and report their findings.

b. They analyze the findings.

Students note that magazine ads tend to idealize family life, portraying an all-knowing grandmother who is continuously "doing" things with children. Newspapers sometimes focus on exceptional cases and not the ordinary ones. General articles about old age, life in a high-rise, menus for seniors, etc., are recent, and may quite accurately reflect the real situation, although there may be some "shock value" moralizing in some of the articles. Interviews and some articles show that many senior citizens are independent because they want to be independent.

Step 5: Students modify the statement, continue to seek additional information, and further refine the statement.

Students make the following refined statements based on their findings: (1) Many older persons in Midwestern America choose to live apart from their families because they value their independence. (2) Many are lonely and feel forgotten by their families. (3) There are special services open to senior citizens in our culture to ensure adequate health care, nutrition, and recreation support.

Step 6: Students examine a related feature of their own culture using the same process.

This step is not appropriate in this example, since it is drawn from U.S. culture.

Step 7: Students compare their refined statements about their own and the other culture, describing similarities and differences.

This step is not appropriate in this example, since it is drawn from U.S. culture.

The entire process may take ten to fifteen minutes on each of two or three class periods, students working in small groups to research the sources. As a result, they should recognize that generalizations about any culture are difficult to make because of the diversity and changing nature of all societies. This realization will in turn help them to avoid overgeneralizing as they examine another culture.

The following is an example of the same process as applied in a French classroom. It is assumed that students have already completed an exercise such as the preceding suggestion.

Step 1: Students perceive an aspect of culture through learning materials, teacher presentation, or other sources.

Students remark that French teenagers seem to be riding bikes, motorcycles, and other two-wheeled vehicles more often than driving cars in films they have seen.

Step 2: Students make a statement about the culture as a result of this perception.

Resulting statement: French teenagers seem to use bikes, cycles, and motorbikes more than they use cars.

Step 3: Students seek multiple sources for information related to the statement, such as newspapers, movies, slides, books, as well as other media, realia, and native speakers.

Students look through sample textbooks and readers available in the classroom and find many pictures of young people on bikes. There is a dialogue about a 'motocyclette' as well. In addition, a teen magazine shows many ads and pictures of Solexes, Motobécanes, and other mopeds. But prices quoted seem very high. A contest announces a Vespa as a grand prize. A French news magazine in the classroom has a feature about traffic accidents on autoroutes, however, and indicates that many more cars than two-wheeled vehicles have been involved in accidents. There are very low casualty figures for teenagers, too. A few students report that their penpals have bikes and no cars, and that they have only a single car for the entire family. Most penpals indicate that they walk to school or use public transportation (usually buses). A student reports on a TV news item indicating that gasoline is four times as expensive in Europe as in the U.S.; in discussing that fact the class agrees that this may be an important factor in the materials they have found.

Step 4: Students question and compare their sources, examining them for potential limitations, such as publication date, intended audience, and purpose of the document. a. They describe and report their findings. b. They analyze the findings.	Students agree that all the sources at their disposal seem to show that teenage auto and other motorized vehicle ownership is rare in France. They are most impressed by evidence in letters from widely scattered penpals and the fact that gasoline is so expensive in Europe. Their penpals have discussed their allowances and pocket money, also, and given the high prices for the vehicles, they feel it is unlikely that many teens can afford them. They agree that teenagers depicted in the textbooks and movies might not be as believable, because such sources are less recent and may thus be less representative of everyday life.
Step 5: Students modify the statement, continue to seek additional information, and further refine the statement.	They agree on the following generalizations: (1) It is probable that teenagers in France drive bikes, motorcycles, and mopeds more frequently than they do cars. But such vehicles seem expensive and may be difficult for teens to purchase as a result. (2) Gasoline is very expensive and may contribute to less use of motorized vehicles. (3) Since many families seem to have only one car, it is less likely that teens can take the car as frequently as they might like. (4) Most French teenagers probably walk or use public transportation instead of private vehicles.
Step 6: Students examine a related feature of their own culture using the same process.	Students state that many American teenagers seem to own cars and other vehicles. They seeek confirmation in magazine ads, newspapers, and on TV. They poll their own and another class informally. Many magazines show such a possibility. But in their school (in a small town) they find that few teens own cars unless they have a job, although many occasionally drive the family car. A few families have two cars, but teens usually use the car only at night or on weekends. Many have friends in a neighboring large suburban school who say that many students own cars and motorcycles, however. They decide that in some families teenagers drive cars frequently, though not as often in small towns like their own. TV and movies tend to show a more ideal life, and do not seem to reflect their own situations very accurately.
Step 7: Students compare their refined statements about their own and the other culture, describing similarities and differences.	The situation in their own town does not seem to be very different from that seen in French life. More of their families seem to own cars than do French families, however, and some of them have two cars. Because they have occasional access to a car at night or on weekends, they feel teen drivers may be more common in the U.S. than in France. French students must like to talk and read about cars and cycles in magazines, though, just as they do. Students wonder whether the age at which students may begin driving is much later and will seek this information.

The entire process may take about ten to fifteen minutes on each of three days, and students do some seeking of information as homework. The teacher asks questions about the process by which students are examining generalizations and suggests source materials.

Workshops which help teachers to develop and practice refining hypotheses of their own and also give them confidence in demonstrating the process to students might be held either in the U.S. or in other countries; they should ideally also help teachers gain insight into some useful and exciting ways to use target language aides, children in schools, and other community resources in helping their students understand another culture.

It is in the area of teaching culture, in addition, that language teachers will probably have the most open opportunity to plan cooperatively with social studies, science, math, music, art, and home economics teachers for mutual goals. As such cooperation becomes a reality, teams of teachers from the same programs will need to seek solutions to common problems together.

Methodology

The needs of inservice teachers for methodology continue to be a principal reason for workshops during the academic year as well as for summer programs. Areas of methodological concern which are relatively unexplored include the following (not exhaustive):

(1) Innovative programs and approaches, e.g., Suggestopedia, the Silent Way, Counseling-Learning, continue to be brought to public attention through the popular press. Language teachers need to learn about them, and certainly should be urged to consider the assumptions about learners on which they are based so that they might not only adapt the best techniques and approaches for their classrooms, but also reconsider their own attitudes and assumptions about their

students. At the same time, teachers should learn to recognize that there is no single "right" or "best" method.

(2) Alternative ways of structuring classrooms (e.g., examination of individualized, competitive, and cooperative group structure[3] for language classrooms at various levels) should be of particular interest to language teachers as they meet challenges for interdisciplinary planning and multilevel programming in their classrooms. Cooperative group structures have been especially successful at middle school and junior high school levels in foreign languages,[4] and intensive inservice programs to introduce teachers at those levels to new ways of structuring learning seem logical. Other, more basic approaches for creating student-centered classrooms, such as the use of thematic or topical units planned by students, might also be included.

(3) Comprehensive surveys of research in language learning and teaching, as well as exposition of and practice in conducting classroom-based research, have not generally formed part of the inservice work of language teachers. Classroom applications of research results are the real key to effect meaningful change; exploration of implications for the classroom would help alleviate the fear and distrust many practitioners have of research. Anthropological research techniques to apply in studying another culture, and enthnographic techniques for examining classroom groups and individual students are also good possibilities for teachers.

(4) Basic methodological techniques for teaching language in immersion situations, where focus is on the content of the curriculum to be taught through language, rather than on language as an end in itself, are generally not included in most preparation programs. Especially at elementary school levels, teachers should become aware of and proficient in teaching language through activities in all subject areas.

(5) The need for development of curricular materials is no less acute now than it has been for a long time. Basic text materials need to be supplemented extensively in most classrooms; the process of curriculum development through needs-assessment, planning, activities, and evaluation stages generally forms a larger part of preservice programs than it did a few years ago, but the actual process of curriculum development becomes more challenging to teachers when they are in a classroom and need specific kinds of materials to supplement or serve as the basic text. Moreover, teaching materials based on a functional syllabus rather than on a structural syllabus are not yet common, so teachers should be prepared to design communicative materials for their classrooms which build interactive capabilities of their students.[5] Unless teachers take a more active role in planning the language curriculum, rather than simply following a textbook, language programs will not become more relevant to students and their needs.

(6) Testing and evaluation for classroom teachers have not yet become an important part of undergraduate programs; thus inservice work should be provided in planning class quizzes and tests, evaluating student language proficiency for specific tasks, and examining program results. After an introduction to problems of testing oral language production and communicative abilities though interview and other global procedures, teachers will be ready to give development of oral interaction a more central spot in the curriculum, since it will be possible to test oral/aural objectives.

(7) Teaching language for science, technology, business, and other careers is largely unknown in the foreign language teaching field, although productive cooperative efforts with teachers of English for Special Purposes and English for Science and Technology, as well as with teachers of other curriculum areas would help a great deal in meeting the needs of today's students as they prepare for their professions. Programs abroad which would provide language teachers opportunities to serve as unpaid interns in a number of career fields might be financed by firms which would in turn receive some free services. Teachers could thus learn special vocabulary for careers as they improve their own language skills abroad. Upon their return, the development of specialized language courses for special purposes might finally be feasible.

Formats for Inservice Programs

The focus of any inservice program must be on the teacher's growth in self-assessment. Teachers must be able to identify ways in which their teaching procedures and student growth interact, and diagnose strengths and weaknesses in their ability to deal with such interaction. The classroom of the 1980s, since it is likely to focus more and more on face-to-face interaction of language learners, demands teachers who are skilled at orchestrating and monitoring such interaction. Inservice programs, then, should make extensive use of classroom videotaping, since tapes provide an excellent mechanism for recording all aspects of classroom and teacher activities.

Academic Year Programs

(1) In cities where an IHE is in the community or nearby, teams might be set up in school language programs consisting of a cooperating (inservice) teacher, one or more student-teachers, and perhaps sophomore- or junior-year observers. The inservice teacher who is part of such a team functions both as learner and as teacher, learning important techniques for self-appraisal as novices gain confidence and experience in teaching language.

(2) Some IHEs now provide opportunities for short-term exchange of faculty persons with public schools, though there are usually few takers. More frequent exchanges covering a week or two would provide important possibilities for renewal at both levels.

(3) Semester-abroad programs funded by Federal or other sources should include some work and observation in schools in Europe, Latin America, Africa, or Canada; work-intern programs in business or a profession abroad; and more traditional study opportunities.

(4) IHEs should be persuaded to (1) offer regular language courses and workshops at after-school hours during the week and on weekends, and (2) be open to the possibility of weekend retreats or other intensive two-day or longer experiences for teachers studying language, culture, or methodology. Weekend language corridors, language houses, camping programs, or retreats at winter resorts, for example, can provide uninterrupted time for language practice. Other non-school settings might also be possible.

Summer Programs

A number of summer programs have already been alluded to, and will be further discussed under two headings: Programs Abroad, and Programs in the U.S.

Programs Abroad

Current, accurate knowledge about the language and culture they are teaching is so important that we should consider *requiring* (1) an experience living in the target culture for all undergraduates preparing to be language teachers, and (2) some minimum time of residency abroad within each eight- to ten-year period as a requirement for recertification of inservice teachers. Clearly there is a need for NDEA-type funding for summer programs abroad for teachers, since travel is often beyond the reach of those who would profit the most.

Industries and commercial firms abroad might be persuaded to sponsor "foreign teacher" interns for limited periods, such as three or four weeks. As indicated earlier with respect to academic-year programs, teachers would learn about the business itself, as well as enriching their language backgrounds for developing specialized courses in their schools. Such interns could work for expenses alone, without salary, and might be further aided by travel scholarships by language organizations or local firms.

Programs which focus on language practice for teachers should stress way-of-life culture and authentic documents, literature interesting to adolescents, and maximum instruction with minimum classroom structure. Teachers should do in a foreign country what they cannot do at home, i.e., interact with the culture and practice using the language intensively, rather than or in addition to participating in a strictly academic program. Since so few language professors in institutions of higher education in the U.S. are able or willing to teach about language, way-of-life culture, children's and young people's literature, and authentic documents, using summers abroad for such study is appropriate and necessary.

There is still need for development of materials which utilize the real culture and authentic documents and artifacts for U.S. students at every level. Such programs should have dual focus: (1) materials for foreign language classrooms which teach the language through content, and (2) materials which teach a process for learning about other cultures. We should strongly consider offering programs for teams of language teachers and teachers from other areas of the curriculum to work abroad.

Programs in the U.S.

Intensive institutes which meet all day (and perhaps also provide "language house" experiences) taught by faculty from another country provide a way for teachers to get many of the benefits of language study abroad at more affordable prices. We should also utilize community resources (i.e., foreign-born persons in our communities, children and adults) far more than we do presently.

Interdisciplinary workshops, especially for teachers at elementary, middle school, and junior high levels, would enable language teachers to learn to work with other curricular areas more readily. Mutual trust might replace fear and competitiveness which often characterize such attempts now. Preparation of materials for teaching language through content areas is needed, as is fresh material for teaching cross-cultural understanding.

Teachers should have opportunities to watch other teachers at work and to try out new techniques and approaches with minimal risk. The importance of videotape cannot be overemphasized, both to introduce classroom techniques and to help teachers appraise their own progress in teaching language to students. Demonstration classes, microteaching opportunities, and other such arrangements should be an important part of summer programs.

Whether language teaching will remain a reasonable career objective in the next decade depends in large part on the extent to which teachers in service can "flex" to provide new programs to meet societal needs. While all programs outlined herein may not be feasible immediately, the needs on which the suggestions are based are compelling enough to merit our beginning the task![6]

NOTES

1. F. André Paquette, ed., "Guidelines for Teacher Education Programs in Modern Foreign Languages: An Exposition," *The Modern Language Journal*, 50(1966), 323-425.

2. Examples for U.S and French culture by Helen Jorstad, in Dale L. Lange, ed., *Essential Learner Outcomes for Modern Languages: Foundation Learning* (St. Paul, MN: State Department of Education, 1978), pp. 7-10.

3. David W. Johnson and Roger T. Johnson, *Learning Together and Alone* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1975).

4. Barbara Gunderson, "Cooperative Structure in the Foreign Language Classroom," in Reid E. Baker, ed., *Teaching for Tomorrow in the Foreign Language Classroom* (Skokie, IL: National Textbook Company, 1978), pp. 37-52.

5. An excellent discussion of rationale and procedures for developing materials based on interaction may be found in H.G. Widdowson, *Teaching Language as Communication* (London: Oxford University Press, 1978).

6. Many ideas from the following have been incorporated into this paper: Wolf Hollerbach, T. Bruce Fryer, Charles Hancock, and Thomas Geno. Their reactions to the first draft provided much of its present focus.

Priorities: Teacher Education

The following recommendations on key issues in teacher education are based on position papers prepared by Frank Grittner (Wisconsin State Department of Public Instruction), Elizabeth Joiner (University of South Carolina), and Helen L. Jorstad (University of Minnesota), with reaction papers by Charles Hancock (University of Maryland), T. Bruce Fryer (University of South Carolina), Thomas Geno (University of Vermont), and Wolf Hollerbach (University of Alaska), and discussions in which Lynn Sandstedt (University of Northern Colorado) participated. The discussions centered around the wide diversity which exists in the U.S. in terms of models for teacher education at the preservice and inservice categories. It was frequently mentioned during this discussion that the teacher, whether he or she be a preservice or an inservice individual is a PERSON who performs a wide variety of roles (e.g., disseminator of knowledge, motivator, counselor, researcher, politician, and so forth). Programs which seek to train individuals to meet such diverse roles must respond to that diversity in a humanistic, flexible manner. Charles R. Hancock compiled the statement.

The authors of the three position papers seemed to have made the following assumptions in drafting their papers:

(1) There is a need for professional standards for foreign language teacher education programs.
(2) The accumulation of course credits either from college/university or school district inservice workshops by foreign language teachers is not likely to significantly change the quality of foreign language teaching in the U.S.
(3) It is important for the profession to encourage research and experimentation in foreign language teacher education.
(4) A system which encourages teachers (both preservice and inservice) to learn self-assessment techniques has excellent potential for achieving goals relating to change in teacher behavior.
(5) There are many successful programs of foreign language teacher education in the U.S., and these should be surveyed and publicized.
(6) There will be standards for high school proficiency at various levels.

After considerable discussion, this group drafted a list of *key issues* with which the profession should deal during the 1980s. Those key issues have been identified as:

Key Issues in Teacher Education

1. Establishment of a set of standards for teacher education programs is needed. This set of standards would result from an analysis of existing similar guidelines, including the following items (not exhaustive):*
   - A. The program shall provide for the development of skill in the use of the target language(s).
   - B. The program shall provide for the development of skills in language analysis.
   - C. The program shall provide for the development of knowledge and skills necessary to teach the culture of the target language using that language as the primary instructional vehicle.
   - D. The program shall provide for the development of abilities necessary to plan and implement foreign language instruction.
   - E. The program shall provide for the development of professional awareness and responsibility.
   - F. The program shall provide for the development of knowledge and skills related to the involvement of students with special needs (ESOL, handicapped, and so forth) into the foreign language classroom.

   * A complete listing of the sub-categories for each of these standards is found in Frank Grittner's position paper.
2. Self-evaluation strategies for all teachers should become an integral part of teacher education programs, workshops/conferences, and publications so that teachers can gain greater insights into the ways in which they might wish or need to change their teaching behaviors. Teachers need to know that they can change their behaviors.
3. The foreign language education profession must reaffirm that teaching the target language is the primary focus of our efforts.
4. The foreign language education profession must reaffirm that learning a language is a *tool* which is useful in many other areas.
5. Since we know that there are many successful foreign language teacher education programs, an identification of these programs as examples of various models is needed. That listing should be publicized widely.

Recommendations for Implementation of Teacher Education Proposals

A. General

To implement the proposals recommended by the Teacher Education group, the following suggestions are made:

1. Since many of the same concerns in the area of teacher education have been around for the past fifteen or sixteen years (since the MLA Guidelines for Teacher Education Programs), it is important that ACTFL take a leadership role in the development and subsequent dissemination of a document (similar to that of the national TESOL association and the Office of Bilingual Education, for example).
2. Components of such a document should include the following:
   - A. A preamble or introductory statement
   - B. A listing of the "STANDARDS" for foreign language teacher education programs (as per the suggestions made at this National Conference on Professional Priorities)
   - C. A curriculum description (recommended) for a teacher education program (including goals, courses, and evaluation procedures)
   - D. An identification of successful models of foreign language teacher education programs, with emphasis on distinctive models)
3. A summary of the reults of a recent survey (by Lynn Sandstedt) of teacher education programs (foreign language).
4. Once a set of guidelines is developed (as per the outcomes of this Professional Priorities Conference), that list should be made available to various constituent groups for suggested modifications and subsequent dissemination to state departments of education, foreign language as well as non-foreign language education agencies/consituencies.
5. Both local educational agencies and higher education agencies should be involved in planning policies and programs for training foreign language teachers.

B. Specific (follow-up to this conference)

1. We recommend that a pre- or post-conference workshop be scheduled to finalize the preparation of a document (set of guidelines) for foreign language teacher education programs.
2. It is suggested that the final manuscript of the position papers and reactions to those papers be presented to the editor of this document with the latitude to edit as he or she deems necessary.
3. It is recommended that a document with the components identified in item 2 above be initiated as a direct follow-up to this conference on national priorities.

Reactions: Curriculum and Materials

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I. Zais: "Curriculum and Materials Development: A Jeremiad on the Past – A Standard for the Eighties"

Robert Zais' paper is a landmark work offering a mournful lamentation on curriculum development in recent years and guidelines which cannot be ignored in looking toward the task ahead. It bears the careful review of every member of our profession with the slightest inclination to tinker with or perform major surgery on any aspect of the foreign language curriculum or make any decision that would in any way affect the classroom.

Zais cites research indicating that little change has occurred in the science, math, and social studies classrooms to advance instruction from what it was 20 years ago, and he asserts that there may have even been some deterioration. He charges that curriculum development has become a value-ridden, political process of policy-making, controlled more by community pressures than by educators. I would strengthen his indictment by suggesting that within the academic world, it is not the liberally educated academician who makes the important decisions, but the educationists with too many classes in education and not enough of the solid stuff who determine the direction for instruction, or who at least try to, sometimes fortunately to be ignored by those whom they attempt to lead. The so-called educational leaders are all too often empty-headed populists and sometimes people who know better but act thoughtlessly, sending or attempting to send teachers off on the newest bandwagon which is abandoned as soon as fruitless energies are exhausted or the next bandwagon comes along. Curriculum development, according to Zais, has been captivated by *curriculum chic*. It is a market-place mentality that persuades education through which important concepts are trivialized, labeled and pushed off without research and planning on teachers who either ignore them or work themselves to the point of disillusionment trying to do the impossible.

The wise author of this paper calls the state of affairs a "professional disgrace," a constant whirl of "sound and fury signifying nothing." We have an unexamined curriculum.

After this painful but necessary examination of the past, Zais takes a constructive turn. Although his paper lacks many specific suggestions and most of his principles must be inferred from his criticisms, he insists that education is a moral enterprise which requires of its leaders a self- and social-critical disposition. They must maintain a sense of perspective and of reality. I would add that they must also be honest. He does not reject the fact that politics enter into curriculum development, but he urges caution in using that ploy.

I offer a few reservations fo further thoughts:

1. He suggests that the foreign language profession learned well to use the political process. I believe that only a beginning has been made. We have too few results yet to show for those efforts.
2. Zais heralds the liaison between ACTFL and the National Council for the Social Studies on behalf of "global education" as an important development, although he does suggest that "global education" is another manifestation of *curriculum chic* which shows signs of being on the way out. I have serious reservations about both the liaison and the curricular issue.
3. I suggest that foreign language education has not stood quite as still as some of the other disciplines. In spite of some foreign language leaders' interest in the innovations that have contributed to the add-on curriculum, the profession is still united, always in theory and often in practice, by the goals of the four skills and culture.

II. Albert Valdman: "The Incorporation of the Notion of Communicative Competence in the Design of the Introductory Foreign Language Course Syllabus"

Valdman confines his examination strictly to the foreign language curriculum. His basic premise is that the communicative competence concept which has already had considerable impact on the foreign language curriculum offers much promise in reforming the curriculum and its materials. He suggests, however, that it must be pared to attainable preparations if it is to be realistic in helping to reach the primary goal of foreign language instruction – communicative ability. He calls his proposed adaptation *minimal communicative ability*. It is a cognitive-functional syllabus.

This reformer identifies four features which are essential to the consideration of curricular reform:

1. *Cyclical progression*. Grammar is not as simple as it seems; for example, seven concepts of the French *passé composé* can be identified. All that is desirable cannot be accomplished, given the time and other limitations of classroom learning, and we must therefore start with the simplest and build toward the more complex. The full complement may not be attainable in a given basic curriculum.
2. *The notional focus*. Pioneered in Europe and not yet adapted for American schools, this curriculum uses content instead of grammar – a conceptual approach – to organize the curriculum. Content is chosen according to the course objectives.
3. *Simplification and reduction*. Lexical and grammatical choices must be made, creating a "little language," whereby students can function without producing excessive errors. Yet they move toward attainment of the full language.
4. *Discursive authenticity*. Language must be made real. Things must be taught and context must be designed so that language communicates all that it is capable of.

Valdman's concerns seem to center around one aspect of curricular reform: making it possible to develop communicative ability within the limited time frame in which schools operate. He does not address other issues such as content, objectives, or methods. He deserves a careful hearing.

III. H.H. Stern: "Directions in Foreign Language Curriculum Development"

Stern notes an increasingly social view of language, the increased emphasis on the learner's perceptions, motivation, etc., the emphasized human relations focus through individualization of instruction and related developments, and two curricular reforms – the functional/notional syllabus and immersion programs – as the curricular trends of the 70s. Looking ahead he recognizes the value of each but insists that communication must pervade the curriculum if that is the goal of instruction; he would not dismiss the structural-grammatical sequence although it is admittedly insufficient within itself. Like Valdman, Stern warns that we must not demand so much in the classroom that instruction becomes unattainable and artificial.

Stern proposes a broadly based, general purpose curriculum consisting of four components: the target language, the target culture, communication in the language and culture, and general language education. The basic goals – effective communication and the ability to generalize from one language/culture learning experience to others – guide the objectives:

linguistic and cultural proficiency, knowledge of the language and culture, the development of attitudes and values, and transfer to other languages. Teaching and learning strategies should reflect these multiple foci; the time spent on purely structural or functional study should be reduced; culture should be better integrated; the communicative activities of the learner should be increased through direct contacts and from the beginning; and students must be deliberately taught the application of their learnings to other languages and cultures.

Stern is cautious, however, in his approach to curricular reform. He advises that research and development precede introduction of the proposed curriculum into the schools and that existing knowledge needs to be organizd and presented to teachers in a systematic fashion. He thinks that curricular development can best take place in the schools by the practitioners, not by the theorists, that models are needed to guide, and that any changes should be monitored.

My disagreement with Stern is minor and focuses on two points. He gives more credit to the effect of such learner-emancipating developments as individualization and suggestopedia than I would. Second, he suggests that the single textbook will probably become obsolete. This may be very desirable, but the economics of foreign language textbook marketing and adoption policies may make this change difficult to achieve.

Practically, his proposal would require much time to develop. He also does not address the matter of teacher preparation and inservice which would have to undergo a virtual revolution in order to ready the profession for such change.

IV. Wilga M. Rivers: "Practical Implications of New Trends and Directions"

Rivers, like others, recognizes that the growing interdependence of nations and cultures necessitates increased attention to the study of languages and cultures. This was underscored by the recent President's Commission report.

She insists rightfully and logically that if facility in and understanding of communication are important goals of language instruction, then teaching must be directed to that end. She urges caution in linking intercultural studies and foreign languages and suggests such humble beginnings as seeking advice from history teachers regarding materials which can be related to foreign language instruction. She proposes that if the two disciplines are to be related, preservice training in each should include studies inthe other. Four-skill instruction must precede any goal-specific instruction such as career applications require. Uniquely, she suggests interaction among different language classes to broaden the students' learning experience through a comparative process. To manage the curriculum of the future, teachers must learn more about how language functions. She affirms that language is a key to humanistic studies in developing individuals who can examine issues, discuss viewpoints and enjoy aesthetic stimulation. She closes on the note that existing courses must be reoriented and new ones be added which address learners' needs.

Rivers' paper contains little with which to disagree except that some of her suggestions for the teacher, although desirable, would require much additional energy of that already overworked person. She offers principles to guide curriculum development rather than designing specific models as some of the other authors do.

V. Robert C. Lafayette and Lorraine Strasheim: "Foreign Language Curricula and Materials for the Twenty-First Century"

Strasheim and Lafayette saw such a close liaison between foreign language and "global" education that they joined forces to write one article instead of two, and they view global education as an organizing principle rather than an add-on. They make much more of the topic of "global" education than the other curricular paper authors, most of whom did not even mention it, even though all called for a revolutionized cultural component. I find this dangerously short-sighted, for if followed, it threatens to take the foreign language profession down the same dead-end path that the social studies folk have already gone.

Zais in his introductory paper observes ". . . global education is already well on its way to becoming the latest fashion in *curriculum chic.*" There is much evidence lending credibility to his conjecture and to my belief that this is true.

Although these authors do not define "global" education, it is the thrust of their entire paper. It is this basic philosophy which I cannot accept as a platform for curriculum reform in foreign languages. Yet, I am convinced that their intentions are good, and I find that many of their specific analyses and recommendations are on target with the other authors and my own thinking.

They recognize that there is too much to accomplish in the time available for instruction. It is true that little guidance has been offered to the instructor for the teaching of real communication and culture and that these objectives have often been done poorly or not at all. They know that little attention has been devoted to how to learn a language. They recognize that teachers are overburdened. They urge that all of these conditions be taken into consideration as the curriculum is redesigned, and I would support all of them.

The authors lose me when they propose that teaching materials be conceptually built around social issues. I find provincialism in the suggestion that "the instruction and the learnings . . . be related to the learner's community, state and region." Although may cues can be taken from the local environment, is it not this suggested provincialism that we are trying to overcome in teaching languages and cultures?

Among the valid principles which Lafayette and Strasheim propose as a basis for curriculum development, I applaud that which urges the matching of materials with time, the age of the learner, and other factors, and which view goals, instruction, and evaluation as a logical progression. Like Valdman, they propose that linguistic materials be reduced in order to permit mastery of the identified minimum. Evaluation instruments should test content, knowledge and skill development, emphasizing a reduction in the testing of form, something which is long overdue.

Lafayette and Strasheim call for a basic curriculum lasting from one to three years, depending on the circumstances. It would be explicitly defined—a development which is very much needed. It would then be followed by three options: (1) a continuation of the culture-based curriculum; (2) one exhibiting concentration in language or literature; or (3) content-based courses tied directly to another discipline. The basic curriculum would be reordered according to Pfister *et al.*'s cultural categories plus a segment called "global exchange." Notably absent among these categories is any implication of any kind of historical persective in the treatment of them and of the specific subtopics.

Although I in no way agree with these authors' specific proposals for curriculum reform in foreign languages, I think that their schedule and program for achieving reform is worthy of consideration for whatever is done. They propose broad professional involvement spearheaded by ACTFL. The first two years would be spent using these papers for the development of a policy statement which would be subject to further review and refinement through subsequent professional conferences and media. The first five years would be devoted to educating the profession, publishers, state agencies, etc., to the changes. The middle five years would be spent designing courses and reordering priorities, with different reform groups working together. The last three would be for the purpose of research and developing titles and model programs. I do find two fallacies this schedule: no initial research is suggested to test out assumptions before their applications; and little is likely to happen in the classroom until new textbooks are ready, and that step is left until the last stage.

I eagerly respond to the challenge of the authors' concluding statement: "curricula in foreign languages will be ________-based," which would be completed by the authors with the word "culture." I would insert "language." To make the authors' choice would convert foreign language courses to social studies experiments that never even caught on in those classrooms. That is precisely what I do not want to happen to foreign language instruction.

VI. Conclusions

Several common threads run throughout the four papers:

1. Most call for more realistic, achievable goals, thus necessitating a reduction in the content.

2. All propose an improved approach to the teaching of the cultural component.
3. A reduction in stress on form (grammar) is proposed; instead linguistic and cultural competence wuld be brought to the fore.

I hail all of them as essential principles for curricular reform in foreign languages.

I also observe two omissions:

1. Amost nothing, except a brief mention by Lafayette and Strasheim, is said about the special role of classical studies.
2. Although touched on by several authors, there is too little focus on the relationship of the magnitude of what we are now attempting to accomplish to the short time that we have for it. As a practical first step, the existing curriculum could almost immediately be spread over a longer time frame, permitting more effective application of it and more success for students through increased time for learning, while we await more basic reform that would require years to accomplish.

The significance of such a conference, I believe, is that it is being held. It represents the first major effort that I have known to address the need for curricular reform. What is important is not so much what has been said or who has agreed with whom, but that a beginning has been made. It must continue.

Having worked or had close association with two other basic academic disciplines (social studies and English) during my career, I am convinced that we in foreign languages "have it together" very well. What we need is to learn how to manage better what we are about: (1) by allowing time for learning whatever it is that we teach; and (2) by refocusing on some of the specifics of language instruction though widening, narrowing, or sharpening the view.

Reactions: Global Education

Andrew F. Smith

Global Perspectives in Education, Inc.

The papers by Torney-Purta and Lafayette and Strasheim are well argued and thought-provoking. There is a fundamental, conceptual difference between the two papers which has caused me considerable cognitive dissonance. I'd like to focus first on the divergence of opinion – the relationship between cultures, foreign language education, and education for global perspectives, and then on the agenda for the 80s.

Lafayette and Strasheim broadly discuss the assumptions about language teaching, education, "multidisciplinary teaching in a global education construct" and present principles for foreign language curricula in the twenty-first century. These present the ground work for "building a basic culture-based communication curriculum . . ." which would include specific topics in six cultural categories: (1) The Family Unit and the Personal Sphere; (2) The Social Sphere; (3) Political Systems and Institutions; (4) Environmental Sphere; (5) Religion, the Arts and the Humanities; and (6) Global Exchange.

A different approach has been suggested by the paper developed by Torney-Purta who notes that there are a variety of approaches to global international education. According to Torney-Purta, the global education approach stresses two elements – world problems and the notion of perspective consciousness. She discusses two implications of the global education approach for foreign language education. First is the inclusion of contemporary problems and "attempts to motivate students to participate in their solution;" second is "to further the awareness of and ability to operate with a global perspective."

The cultural dimension has been a focus of foreign language education. If the global education approach were taken seriously, it "would differ rather substantially from the cultural elements traditionally included in foreign language courses (art, theater, or the daily life of middle class persons)."

Most conceptualizations of global perpsectives education have included a culture dimension. Along with "perspective consciousness," Hanvey also identified "Cross Cultural Awareness" as part of global perspectives.[1] He stresses the importance of moving from an awareness of superficial cultural stereotypes to "transpection" – an awareness of how another culture feels from the standpoint of the insider.

A conference at Wingspread sponsored by the National Assessment of Education Progress in late 1977 identified "Cultural Pluralism" as one of three basic elements in global literacy.[2] Cultural pluralism includes:

(1) Individual and group identity as a product of inter- and intracultural experience.
(2) Cultural differences as varied responses to common biological, social, and psychological basic needs as well as expressions of different historical, environmental, and political experiences.
(3) Cultural differences in an interrelated world as both a source of strength and a source of difficulty.

While global perspectives educators consider the cultural dimension to be a necessary and significant element, most object strongly to the way culture is taught in the schools. The "4F" curriculum predominates. This curriculum focuses on facts, foods, festivals, and famous people. This curriculum hardly ever moves beyond the superficial or stereotypic.

In theory, studying any culture can improve global literacy; in fact, most of the study of culture produces stereotypes and confirms ethnocentric views that my culture is best.

There are many implications of the preceeding for foreign language instruction:

(1) It is not possible to teach foreign language and not teach about the culture. So the question is not whether or not to teach about culture in a foreign language class, but what aspects of culture are you going to teach about, and what will be the effects of including and excluding aspects of that culture.
(2) Teaching culture only through grammar, vocabulary, and/or foods, festivals, etc. can create stereotypic and ethnocentric thinking – the exact opposite of a humanistic, holistic education needed for an increasingly interdependent world.
(3) Foreign language educators must view themselves not as teachers of German, French, Spanish, or Russian – but as teachers of a generic concept of culture to help students not only to better understand that culture/language, but also to better understand the cultural commonalities that link the entire species and to recognize generally the importance and benefits of individual and cultural differences.
(4) Foreign language educators are not uniquely concerned with culture within the school curriculum. Bridges can and must be built to other curriculum areas such as social studies, language arts, and other humanities which also focus on "culture."

These implications suggest a new conceptualization of the relationships of culture and foreign language instruction which should focus on at least the following questions:

(1) What new content should be included in a foreign language class?
(2) What are the skills that could be taught in foreign language classes that would better help the students cope with a changing world?
(3) What concepts can be utilized in specific foreign language classes which could be taught in other foreign language classes and could reinforce teaching in other disciplines?
(4) What attitudes and values could be encouraged through foreign language education?
(5) What are the best methodologies which can promote this new content, skills, concept, values, and attitudes?
(6) What are the best curriculum change strategies which can effectively and efficiently promote these changes in the curriculum?

These questions are complex and answers will not be easily arrived at. They will take concerted effort over prolonged time. If it is any consolation, many educators in other curriculum areas are also asking similar questions.

It means that we should make mutual exploration a significant priority. This exploration can be accomplished most efficiently by the leadership organizations (ACTFL, NCSS, GPE, CTIR, etc.) already active in each field. A shopping list of potential activities includes:

(1) invitations to attend conferences, meetings, and programs with global perspectives educators;
(2) establishing a panel or task force of foreign language to suggest future activities;
(3) presenting joint programs at conferences (e.g., NCSS, ACTFL, NCTE);
(4) developing conferences which would focus on specific areas of mutual interest;
(5) development of publications on selected issues or concepts;
(6) curriculum development efforts through existing projects;
(7) development of proposals (e.g., to NEH or 603) to explore major curriculum development, teacher training, evaluation, and dissemination efforts;
(8) invitations, where appropriate, to participate in each other's teacher training efforts;
(9) developing a position paper which would identify mutual interests as well as areas of divergence;
(10) efforts to support proposed federal legislation and appropriations in areas of mutual interest;
(11) encouragement of dialogue with other curriculum change efforts;
(12) improved communications among those active in both fields, through exchange of newsletters, existing curriculum materials, etc.;
(13) encouragement of further research and evaluation in areas of mutual concern (e.g., school change strategies);
(14) developing mutual support in national educational organizations (NEA, AFT, NAESP, etc.);
(15) developing community support through public awareness programs on citizenship education;
(16) developing international linkages to others with similar concerns;
(17) encouraging collaboration through local and regional coalitions.

NOTES

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1. Robert G. Hanvey, "An Attainable Global Perspective," *Global Perspectives in Education*, 1974.

2. Report, "Wingspread Conference on Assessment of Global Literacy," Racine, WI, 8-10 December 1977, p. 8.

Helene Z. Loew
New York State Education Department

My initial and final reaction to reading the Lafayette-Strasheim paper several times is simply one of admiration. This reaction paper serves to reinforce what the authors already state and also offers some possibilities for the expansion of some points.

Assumptions about Language Teaching

II. Should we mention the professional goals? Skills, culture, communication, etc.?
III. Shall we include the lack of flexibility and the rigid interpretation of "levels"?
IV. I would like to see a condemnation of most textbook treatments of "culture." Do we want to define "culture"?
V. Could we also mention the tie into the so-called "basic skills" claim of foreign language study?
VIII. Unfortunately this attention is still in the hands of the writers and researchers. The classroom teacher has never heard of notional or functional syllabus nor do they realize that they are using a structural syllabus.

Future Educational Directions

III. The humanist movement will have quite a struggle with the basic skills-behavioristic movement!
IV. There is inherent resistance to change, especially when the change is now toward teacher-centered education.

Facing the Future

I'm in total agreement. We need an integrated approach.

World-Centered Education

I. Efforts must be made here and elsewhere to show [illegible] language programs already using social issues or w[illegible] based.
II. A focus here is also a multicultural, ethnic pers[illegible] one's community.

Principles for FL Curricula in the Twenty-First Century

I. Shall we mention the covert resistance to sharing knowledge among disciplines?
II. B. Let's get to it!
II. D. Absolutely necessary to teach more than Parisian French language and "culture," for example.
IV. What incentives will we offer to motivate teachers to change?

Define the Cultural Base

See Cultural Universals for further cultural categories.
See self-management skills framework to develop and measure attitudes.

Role of Latin

Latin teachers may need more examples.

An Agenda for Attaining Culture-Based Curricula

Excellent suggestions, reasonable schedule (10 years) and emphasis on professional unity and on sharing of tasks is particularly pleasing.

Shall we use as a framework (1) the development of concepts (mental containers which are continually filled with more and more examples) or (2) spiral curriculum where we keep reentering concepts for reinforcement, clarification, internalization and refinement?

Rationale for the Culture Focus

Culture should be the central part of second language course content because it is the ingredient in our teaching which makes it possible to achieve our *humanistic objectives*.

- The knowlege of the cultural context of words is essential to accurate communication.
- The knowledge of the target language culture is essential to a capability for positive interaction with native speakers of that language.

- The skills and knowledge acquired while developing a deep understanding of the target langauge culture can be expanded to be applied by students in their contacts with members of other culture groups from other countries and of the varied groups which compose American society.

Culture Content

The teaching of culture cannot be limited to providing students mere knowledge of a variety of facts about a cultural group's heritage or of behaviors that may appear quaint or "different" when viewed from within an American cultural frame of reference.

Taken from a draft for Modern Language Syllabus, New York State Education Department, 1979 (mimeo).

Beyond the knowledge of isolated cultural manifestations, students must become aware of the following basic facts:

- Individual attitudes, ways of thinking, of acting, and more generally of coping wth the daily challenge of harmonious living in a social group, are determined, to a great extent, by a system of values which is particular to that group.
- The students themselves are conditioned by such a group environment.
- Other people within their own community as in far away places live in different cultural environments.
- All cultural systems include aspirations and beliefs that are shared by all human beings as well as values which are unique to each.
- Language and its use is one of the most important manifestations of each culture.

While learning the target language and culture, students should be helped to identify the dominant values of the cultural group or groups involved and to recognize that those dominant values determine the cultural manifestations which they encounter.

They should learn to use their knowledge of those dominant values to explain and perhaps eventually to anticipate heretofore unknown manifestations of that culture.

They should be helped to realize that those "different" ways cannot be judged as "bad" or "good" according to another value system such as their own; that each of those value systems, including their own, is the formalization of the best way a group has been able to devise to live in its particular environment; that it is the result of centuries of refinement and that it continues to evolve as the environment itself changes.

All cultures include universally shared aspirations and distinguishing characteristics which vary with time and generations, with location-region and countries where the language is spoken, and with the level of education and social class of the speakers.

Cell-Management Skills: A Framework and Rationale

A number of attempts have been made in the past to identify some skills as "interactional," or "interpersonal," or "social relational." Each of these has provided an advance in positive socialization. They have, however, paid little attention to the cultural influence which may affect interaction. Barbara Winston and Charlotte Anderson have suggested a skills model to reconcile the individual's need to consciously manage his or her own thinking, attitudes, and actions in relation to others. The authors refer to these as *self-management skills.*

THE SKILLS DEFINED

The self-management skills which can act as goals in the globalization of a program are as follows:

Decreasing Egocentric Perceptions

Decreasing egocentric perceptions involves:

- being able to put one's own self-interest in perspective of others' self-interests;
- recognizing the existence of multi-perspectives;
- accepting the existence of alternate perspectives as legitimate explanations;
- considering and acting in response to the interests and welfare of others;
- applying such skills to classroom, school, home, and to peoples everywhere.

Decreasing Ethnocentric Perceptions

Decreasing ethnocentric perceptions involves:

- being able to recognize that one's group associations (social, national, etc.) are reflective of one perspective of existence and operation;
- being able to relate to other groups without judging them by their own group's standards;
- being able to consider and act in response to the interests and welfare of other groups in addition to their own;
- being able to apply these skills to classroom, school, home, and in relation to peoples everywhere.

Decreasing Stereotypic Perceptions

Decreasing stereotypic perceptions involves:

- developing conscious awareness of the danger of any generalized statements;
- developing use of qualifying or modifying statements which avoid, or force a test of, generalized characteristics or statements;
- developing a conscious response mechanism that all characterizations or general statements are tentative, and subject to change;
- developing an ability to apply these skills to classroom, school, home, and in relation to peoples everywhere.

Developing the Ability to Empathize:

Developing the ability to empathize involves:

- being able to "step into another's shoes" and perceive the world as others perceive it;
- being able to describe accurately the thoughts and feelings of others;
- being able to make non-derogatory statements from behaviors different from their own;
- being able to explain why others think, feel, or act in the other's social or situational setting;
- being able to apply these skills to classroom, school, home, and in relation to peoples everywhere.

Developing Constructive Attitudes Toward Diversity

Developing constructive attitudes toward diversity involves:

- being able to recognize and accept diversity in physical characteristics, behavior, and culture;
- being able to accept diversity as inevitable and natural;
- being able to respond positively to desirable differences, and condemning or reducing undesirable differences;
- being able to recognize and respond to the moral complexity in diverse relationships;
- being able to apply these skills to classroom, school, home and in relation to peoples everywhere.

Developing Constructive Attitudes Toward Change

Developing constructive attitudes toward change involves:

- being able to perceive change as inevitable and natural;
- being able to respond positively to desirable change, and condemn or impede undesirable change;
- being able to recognize the broader meaning ramifications of change;
- being able to recognize and respond to the moral complexities of change;
- being able to apply these skills to classroom, school, home, and in relation to peoples everywhere.

Developing Constructive Attitudes Toward Ambiguity

Developing constructive attitudes toward ambiguity involves:

- being able to recognize and accept ambiguity as natural and inevitable;
- being able to increasingly tolerate ambiguity;
- being able to apply these skills to classroom, school, home and in relations with other peoples everywhere.

Developing Constructive Attitudes Toward Conflict

Developing constructive attitudes toward conflict involves:

- being able to recognize conflict as inevitable and natural;
- being able to recognize conflict as potentially manageable, and to identify, learn, and use alternative methods for managing conflict;
- being able to recognize the moral/ethical complexity involved in any conflict;
- being able to apply these skills to classroom, school, home, and in relation to other peoples everywhere.

From: Barbara J. Winston, Charlotte C. Anderson, *Skill Development in*

Elementary Social Studies: A New Perspective (Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium, 1977).

Universals of Culture

One approach to the study of culture[1] is to use the conceptual tools called "Universals of Culture." by Cleaveland, Craven, Danfelser.[2] The following categories comprise the list of the universals of culture:

I. Material Culture
  A. Food
  B. Clothing and Adornment of the Body
  C. Tools and Weapons
  D. Housing and Shelter
  E. Transportation
  F. Personal Possessions
  G. Household Articles

II. The Arts, Play, and Recreation
  A. Forms of the Arts, Play, and Recreation
  B. Folk Arts and Fine Arts
  C. Standards of Beauty and Taste

III. Language and Nonverbal Communication
  A. Nonverbal Communication
  B. Language

IV. Social Organization
  A. Societies
  B. Families
  C. Kinship Systems

V. Social Control
  A. Systems and Governmental Institutions
  B. Rewards and Punishments

VI. Conflict and Warfare
  A. Kinds of Conflict
  B. Kinds of Warfare

VII. Economic Organization
  A. Systems of Trade and Exchange
  B. Producing and Manufacturing
  C. Property
  D. Division of Labor
  E. Standard of Living

VIII. Education
  A. Informal Education
  B. Formal Education

IX. World View
  A. Belief Systems
  B. Religion

When properly prepared, the students can use these as a frame of reference for observing, classifying, and comparing cultures. Because students are usually quick to focus on differences among people and to label others as "weird" or "wrong," the universals tend to emphasize similarities among cultures and to concentrate the common themes of human life and its practices. This approach can, with practice, enable students to view and analyze every culture through the same frame of reference. As a result, cross-cultural comparisons are less biased by ego- and ethnocentricity.

NOTES

1. Culture: Patterns of shared, learned behavior. The total of what a person gets from society as a result of group experiences. Those beliefs, customs, artistic norms, food habits, and crafts which come not from a person's own creative activity, but as a legacy or inheritance from the past, handed down through formal and informal education. Part of culture must be learned by everyone. Part may be selected from alternative patterns. Part only applies to those people who perform the particular roles of the society.

2. *Universals of Culture* by Alice Ann Cleaveland, Jean Craven and Maryanne Danfelser 92/93 in the Intercom Series. Global Perspectives in Education, May 1979.

Reactions: Evaluation

Richard I. Brod
Modern Language Association

Our profession expects a great deal of those of our colleagues who work intensively in the field of testing and evaluation, since their role in all present and future efforts to reform language teaching in the United States is a crucial one. As has been said many times, both currently and in ages past, our profession is standing today at a crossroads of public acceptance. Potentially, the situation is both a threat and an opportunity, but there is growing evidence that the profession will manifest the energy and the will to act positively and seize the opportunity, once we have learned to identify it.

What has happened, finally, after many years of tradition-bound behavior, is that our profession has learned to respond both to external pressures for market-accountability and to internal pressures for reform and reorientation. Present and potential consumers of our "product" have begun to articulate their needs and define their expectations. Since the profession itself has never before properly defined its product, consumers and their advocates have rushed in to fill a vacuum. At the same time, the profession is aware of the benefits to be gained from increased orientation toward its consumers, and has set its own mechanism in motion to achieve those benefits. There is a danger, of course, that subservience to the needs of the consumer will lead to a diminution of the status of the field. Departments rightly resist becoming service units, yet too many of them have in the past missed or ignored opportunities to reassert the general-education value of language study in the curriculum and in so doing to move from the periphery to the center of the curriculum.

At the focal point of efforts to reform our profession and improve its product are testing and evaluation. The profession needs to become accountable to its public; it needs to define its learning objectives and demonstrate how learners achieve them; it needs to raise standards for teaching and teacher training. All three goals require definition of criteria, devices for testing, and consensus on modes and objectives of evaluation. These are stringent requirements, because nothing less is at stake than the credibility of our profession and the validity of its work. They create, however, some rather heavy demands upon the specialists in the subfield of second language testing.

The papers presented for discussion at this conference offer compelling arguments in favor of concerted action leading to the development of a "National Criteria and Assessment Program," an idea that has been talked about in "leadership circles" of the profession for some time. In an official way, it was articulated in the spring of 1978 by the MLA-ACLS Task Force on the Commonly Taught Languages, later that year as one of six Resolutions on Language in American Education approved by the constituent members of the Joint National Committee for Languages, and finally, in the fall of 1979 by the President's Commission as one of its principal recommendations.

It would appear that there is little disagreement about the desirability and usefulness of such a program, but the steps and procedures necessary for creating it are still uncertain. Clearly, the "leadership circles" that articulated the program and its solutions need to get their act together and decide who will do what, to whom, and when. Clifford's paper outlines some preliminary steps already taken by ACTFL, MLA, and TESOL officers in consultation with Educational Testing Service and the Foreign Service Institute. If the participants in this week's conference can find it in their hearts to endorse the proposal and outline some realistic suggestions for its prompt implementation, the profession would be well served. The suggestions should take into account the strengths and limitations of each of the sponsoring agent associations and their allies, and of the three associations acting collectively; sources of internal and external support should be identified; a timetable for action should be worked out; and the connections between past and projected research should be made explicit.

Like Clifford, Randall Jones and Alice Omaggio raise a number of issues in their papers that demand the earnest attention of the profession. Both papers operate on the assumption that communicative competence is the primary goal of language study. The assumption is certainly justified by the overwhelming weight of evidence from the world of our consumers. Yet it ignores the legitimate interests of the classics and other ancient languages, as well as the needs of those language learners who have chosen to restrict themselves to a reading skill, because either their time is limited or their interest is based on a specific, definable need. Adult learners and persons interested in the less commonly taught languages are particularly likely to fall into this category.

This caveat noted, our conference should have little difficulty endorsing most or all of the recommendations set forth in the working papers. Jones, specifically, points to the need for more accurate and reliable scoring procedures for oral testing, plus the development of training material to assist testers. Further, Jones rightly urges better training for graduate students in research methods, and, as a minimum, an education program for language teachers to help them understand basic concepts of testing. Significantly, he also calls for research on the supposed correlation between basic competencies in language teaching and student success, and for a thorough investigation of available proficiency examinations, their limitations, and their potential uses.

Writing from the perspective of her review of priorities in classroom testing, Omaggio develops action recommendations that generally agree with the views of Clifford and Jones. To these she adds a recommendation directed specifically to textbook publishers, urging them to include model foreign language tests with their packages of materials. Her first-listed recommendations can be understood as having relevance for the leading associations in the field, or for whatever follow-up group may be suggested by the participants in this week's meeting.

It is natural enough for those of us who have reached a certain age to be wary of conferences that recommend the holding of further conferences. In the present case, however, a gradual, deliberate approach that draws upon authority and proceeds democratically seems to be the only way to go. The profession's concern with the issue is of long standing, but it has never been deep. Yet the time may well have come when the profession may fall into line behind a new effort to assure quality control for our work and respect for our role in education.

Renate A. Schulz
University of Arkansas

It is a positive sign, indeed, that the three authors of position papers for this section—Ray T. Clifford, Randall L. Jones, and Alice C. Omaggio—agree in defining the major problems in current testing and evaluation practices in the field of foreign language education in the United States. All point to:

- the difficulties in defining and measuring functional communicative competence;
- the incongruity between expressed goals and testing methods;
- the meaninglessness of academic grades or credits as indicators of proficiency;
- the lack of nationally agreed upon objectives and goals for foreign language learning; and
- the lack of commonly agreed upon, standardized procedures and criteria for the purposes of job performance, teacher certification, and student placement and course articulation.

All three authors also seem to agree that the Foreign Service Institute (FSI) Oral Interview, with some modifications, could serve as model for a national foreign language proficiency testing procedure.

While I concur with Jones that foreign language testing has received increased attention in the last fifteen years, and that the available literature on that topic is prolific (see Dale L. Lange and Ray T. Clifford, compilers, *Testing in Foreign Languages, ESL, and Bilingual Education 1966-1979: A Select Annotated ERIC Bibliography* [Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1980]), I am perturbed by the fact that whatever new knowledge and insights have been proclaimed in those publications, they have not yet had any practical and visible effect on those individuals and groups most directly involved in testing in the school curriculum.

One cannot but wonder whether some relationship exists between the nationally decreasing interest in foreign language study and our lack of concern or ability as a profession to provide for valid and systematic measurement of our accomplishments in the classroom. The latest effort to provide some standardized measurement for foreign language learners in the United States dates back to the sixties (Pimsleur Modern Foreign Language Proficiency Tests, 1967; MLA Cooperative Foreign Language Tests, 1963; MLA Foreign Language Proficiency Tests for Teachers and Advanced Students, 1961). We have, at present, no common national measure for credentialling the proficiency of either our teachers or of our students.

I agree with Omaggio that the discrepancy between our testing practices and program goals has been increasing rather than decreasing. The most telling indicator of the state of knowledge about and attitude toward testing and evaluation in the profession in general is the lack of any extensive discussion of those topics in most teacher training programs. I know of almost no undergraduate teacher preparation program which requires a course in discipline-specific testing and evaluation practices.

The fear expressed that Competency Based Teacher Education (CBTE) in foreign languages would lead to "trained" rather than "educated" teachers is, in my opinion, unfounded. Whether a prospective teacher will have to demonstrate a mechanical skill or the intellectual ability to draw on acquired knowledge and reasoning skills to solve a problem depends on the test item and testing procedure. Items can be constructed to test both "training" and "education."

To argue against CBTE in principle is self-defeating. Research, common sense, and our collective experience clearly point to the two necessary conditions for second language learning and acquisition. Those conditions are *input* and *motivation*. (I define input as the language samples, communicative situations, and cultural information the students are exposed to in instruction.)

The teacher controls input and also can play a major role in motivating the students to learn. While we will probably never be able to prove a definite correlation between the backward-buildup and quality of pronunciation, we surely can attempt to evaluate the *amount* and *quality* of the input and the manner in which the input is "put in."

The three position papers limit their discussion to goals and measurement in the area of language proficiency. Unless the profession wishes to revise the impressive rhetoric in most departmental rationale and curricular goals statements, we need to establish concrete goals and testing strategies in the areas of cultural understanding and insights into language and the process of communication in general. The FSI exam might be an adequate measure of language competence for employment purposes in industry and government; it is not a measure of all competencies needed or desired by students or teachers in the area of linguistics, culture, and pedagogy. To avoid any misunderstanding, let me state that I believe in the potential of the FSI Oral Interview for use in the public education sector. I only wish to stress that we need to develop standards and measurement techniques for all knowledge and skills we claim to impart in our classrooms.

The position papers have clearly listed the areas in need of development. What is needed now is a concrete plan of action to address the problems cited.

Omaggio has made a number of good recommendations in the area of teacher pre- and inservice training. One addition to these recommendations is the need for the establishment of a test item bank. Even with adequate teacher preparation, it is difficult for teachers to test integrative, communicative proficiency on a day-to-day basis. Much of that test development needs to be done by professional test developers and made part of available instructional materials.

Clifford has pointed to the joint efforts of ACTFL, ETS, MLA, and TESOL already underway to deal with the larger issues of establishing national proficiency goals and procedures for testing them. It is to this larger plan that I would like to add some suggestions:

(1) All national, state, and local organizations need to join in making the establishment of minimal competencies per level of language instruction professional priority number one. Levels need to be defined in terms of *instructional hours* rather than in terms of *years*.

(2) I propose the commissioning of a study to investigate how other industrialized nations deal with testing and certifying language proficiencies for academic, teaching, and employment purposes.

(3) A national committee needs to be established which determines concrete curricular goals, objectives, and competencies for each level of instruction as well as for teacher certification. In establishing these minimal competencies I plead for realism, taking into consideration the constraints of the U.S. education system, as well as the findings of research and experience which indicate that on the beginning level of foreign language learning in a non-immersion classroom setting the emphasis might be better put on developing language comprehension rather than production.

(4) The involvement of ACTFL, MLA, and TESOL in establishing a national Language Proficiency Program (LaPP) is not sufficient. While these organizations should be lauded for their initiative and leadership, a large-scale involvement of all organizations interested in foreign language education in America is needed if the outcomes of the efforts are to have national impact across all languages and instructional levels.

Reactions: Research

Vicki Galloway
South Carolina Department of Education

I. Purpose of Research

The purpose of education research is, or should be, the improvement of education. But to what extent does research influence educational practice, and should this influence be of direct or indirect impact? These are subjects of apparent controversy among educational researchers and practitioners.

Krashen states two goals of research: The first of these is that of the *development theory*; that is, the attempt to discover, understand and explain natural phenomena. The second type of research seeks to determine *what works* and what does not work—which methods, procedures, techniques are more efficient and effective in our instructional settings. A third goal of research is that of *problem-solving*. Research of this nature is directed toward defining, guiding, correcting and evaluating specific problems in an effort to change or improve specific practices.

While the authors have noted the desirability of balance between research of applied and theoretical natures, the importance of this balance cannot be overemphasized.

Theoretical research can give us much information in the areas of first and second language acquisition and development. Yet, as Cooper point out, there are simply no theories that adequately explain how human languages work, how they are learned or acquired. Krashen's summary of theoretical research in first and second language acquisition is accompanied by statements that these theories, while supported by evidence, are still in need of further testing.

Yet, a scarcity of *applied* research raises the likelihood of the practitioner rushing from fad to fashion. Without applied research, the bright ideas of theoretical research will, according to Robert Slavin, "percolate into the consciousness of practitioners" where they will become "a sort of Rorschach in which practitioners see what they want to see."[1]

Concern has been raised by Jarvis regarding the legitimacy of the third goal or purpose of research, that of problem-solving. A researcher with the aim of solving immediate local problems will likely lose the disinterested status of the scientific knowledge-seeker. His conclusions may inadvertently be clouded by a desire for particular results.

All research is, in essence, problem-solving—whether the problems be vast enigmas or immediate concerns. According to Hill and Kerber: "we all have hunches about how things might be made better. When we act on these hunches, and then observe the results, we are doing research."[2] The urge to examine and solve problems is inescapable human nature.

II. Research Procedures

Cooper outlines three types of research procedures which should be followed in the 80s to gain knowledge for the improvement of foreign language teaching:

1. *Experimental research* has become the most prestigious and acceptable form of scientific inquiry. However, in considering professional priorities in research in the 80s, it should be emphasized that the experimental method is *one* route toward enlightenment. Problems with this method have invariably arisen in the past due to the multitude of extraneous or intervening variables which resist control. However, the continual development of more powerful and sophisticated designs will perhaps afford us greater advances in the future than we have thus far been able to experience. Weaknesses exist with the method itself in the attempt to quantify the complexities of human behavior.

2. *Descriptive.* Research has provided us with little of a descriptive nature. We have concerned ourselves too much, perhaps, with *what works* and not enough with *what is happening* in the classroom. Case studies could provide us with insight into individuals' development in language proficiency and also provide the affective data which Krashen encourages into the reactions and problems of learners. Longitudinal studies, another sadly neglected area, could be of immense value to the profession by allowing us to examine subjects or effects of treatments over an extended period of time. Within longitudinal research, studies examining the deterioration of language proficiency are virtually non-existent.

Needed also are alternate ways of describing and analyzing behavior, as Cooper and Jarvis have noted. Positivistic models must employ context-stripping and researcher depersonalization in order to ensure validity. As a result, cultural and social contexts so crucial to understanding the teacher-learner situation have been sacrificed.

Thus, an extremely promising and exciting research avenue is that referred to by Cooper and Jarvis as the "ethnographic-anthropological-holistic-quantitative method." In this procedure the researcher becomes a participant-observer who utilizes direct observation of everyday activities with intensive open-ended interviews to research all he or she *perceives*. The ethnographer becomes part of the situation being studied in order to *feel* what it is like for people in that situation. Such "reflective" or "humanistic" research would perhaps provide us with information which is not necessarily observable, not necessarily quantifiable by our traditional standards.

Jarvis raises several questions regarding the conduct of such research, the first of which is: who is to be the researcher? One could also ask: what constitutes a "skilled researcher" in this very complex area in which we are, as Jarvis states, dealing with "unobservables"? How would such researchers be trained? Who would train them? Would this type of research not more appropriately require a *team* of researchers?

A second question posed by Jarvis is: which facets of behavior would be "observed"? It would be necessary to make initially arbitrary *a priori* selections of facets of behavior for observation in order to give structure to this "sense data."

Third, Jarvis cautions us to resist the tendency to rush into this new idea assuming that a small amount of knowledge makes us experts in this new research approach. The role of the ethnographer should not be viewed simplistically.

As we highlight our research priorities for the 80s, the importance of more research into new research procedures cannot be overstated. Our time-tested methods have served us well. But models such as the one just mentioned will perhaps open new doors for the profession and provide access to data not presently within our reach.

3. *Action Research, Program Development.* This is research of an expeditious nature which is undertaken on the job by practitioners in order that they might improve their current practices and solve their immediate

problems. It is not concerned with adding truth to the body of knowledge found in books, since generalizations cannot be extended beyond the particular population under study.

Cooper believes that this approach is indeed one of many fruitful avenues to knowledge about foreign language learning and teaching and ought to be developed and utilized in the coming decade. He cites an example of a program which utilized Asher's strategy of TPR in order to curb high attrition rates at the university level. While this program did achieve significant decline in attrition, it may indeed be questioned whether such results could be attributable to the particular treatment students received, or to other variables. But is cannot be generalized that the Total Physical Response method will decrease attrition.

Jarvis sharply criticizes action research for its failure in terms of the criterion of generalizability of knowledge. If research has large-scale generalizability, then it is difficult to argue with Jarvis that perhaps action research is more appropriately a "developmental activity." But research in the broadest sense of the word is simply close investigation or inquiry. The question is: should it take place? and what should we do with it?

To say it should cease, for whatever reasons, is, I believe, unfair. These arguments may also be directed to competent university researchers who run very similar risks with student experimentaion and who also, in their desire to conduct and publish research, may end up neglecting somewhat their instructional responsibilities.

It is, in my opinion, encouraging stagnation to decree that teachers must sit quietly, hands folded, awaiting the pearls of wisdom that so-called competent researchers will one day (hopefully) bestow upon them. If, in their bumbling amateurism, practitioners through their research happen to stumble upon a solution to their particular problem, are we to admonsih them, "don't tell anyone because it won't work twice?"

Who but the practitioner is better prepared to identify and recognize problems in foreign language education? Teachers, all authors have agreed, have a lot to offer in ideas and experience. They don't have the time, money, energy, or expertise to conduct scientific research. But they are the engineers. Perhaps their isolated local cases could contribute ideas for further research under better circumstances and in the hands of trained researchers.

Jarvis states that the role of the practitioner in research should appropriately be one of collaborator with the skilled researcher. Yet, few teachers have access to this "small critical mass" of competent researchers. Added to this is what I feel to be a general lack of rapport between the two groups. Indeed, until we can resolve the communication rift between these two groups, the relationship between research and practice may never be realized.

These comments should not be construed as an open endorsement for action research. Jarvis has stressed the very real danger of drawing sweeping generalizations from uncontolled, locally performed experimentation. The reporting of such research should describe quite clearly and completely the context in which the study took place.

Another danger arises when an administration opts to invest financially or time-wise in large-scale programs based solely on the encouraging results of one such teacher experiment. Our need, then, is not to abolish or abandon such practitioner research efforts, but rather to place them in their proper perspective.

III. Research Directions

Jarvis quotes Stern in summarizing a very common practitioner attitude toward research. There are, indeed, a number of teachers who dislike or are even hostile to research.

Part of the reason for this poor regard for research stems from a failure on the part of practitioners (and some researchers) to place research in the proper perspective. It is a common mistake to expect research to provide *answers*; when it doesn't, or when it seems to provide the wrong answers, we lose faith. Research gave teachers audiolingual methodology. When that proved to be less than 100 percent effective, teachers were given nothing to take its place. Research has also shown that no methodology appears to be any more effective than any other. Sensing a lack of direction from the research community, teachers strike out on their own.

Another factor partly responsible for negative attitudes toward research is the fact that nowhere in the average teacher's education is he or she trained to be a *consumer* of research. Research is, for the most part, conducted and reported for the consumption of other researchers. Perhaps we should begin studying our reporting procedures and delivery systems with the end of making studies more within reach of the practitioner. This is not to say that the reporting of design and statistical procedures and analysis have no place in our research reporting; on the contrary, this data is of vital importance to other researchers and knowledgeable readers who may wish to evaluate the validity of the study and possibilities for replication. But such reporting should not concentrate on these mechanics to the exclusion or neglect of findings and their *implications*.

Attempts have already been made in other education areas to put research into the hands of the practitioners. The NIE publication, *Research Within Reach*, for reading educators, is one example. Briefly, this document was developed through a series of interviews with reading educators in which they were asked to describe instructional problems or concerns which they would like to see researchers address. The 75 questions uncovered were then addressed in the publication through summaries of research to date in that particular area.

We also need to begin training teachers to be consumers of research. This would not necessarily involve a series of courses which delve into the complexities of conducting statistical research, but rather an overview of the function of research and an orientation to the interpretation of basic research designs. Further training in this area should not be limited to practitioners. At present our training of graduate students is in many cases limited to *informing* students how to *conduct* research, not enough time is devoted to the evaluations and criticism of research, including self-evaluation and self-criticism.

IV. Priorities for the 80s

Krashen's summary of research in second language acquisition raises some intriguing possibilities for further research, among them:

(1) Further examination of the Natural Order Hypothesis, including applied research into its implications for second language teaching;

(2) The effect of the Monitor on communication, especially native speaker reactions to types of Monitor users (over-users, under-users). What is "optimum monitor use" and how is it achieved?

(3) The Comprehensible Input Hypothesis is, of course, extremely exciting and further research into this area could revolutionize language learning. What implications does this hold for classroom teaching and what, especially, is the "proper place" of grammar? Research already exists into the desirability and effectiveness of a silent period or readiness period (Asher, Postovsky), but a great deal more effort needs to be concentrated in this area. If comprehensible input is indeed the only causative variable in acquisition, what implications would this have for classroom syllabus ordering? Which of the proposed ordering systems (functional/notional, situational) would be more effective in providing interesting, comprehensible input?

(4) The Affective Filter Hypothesis also needs further examination, especially as to its function within the second language learner. What, for example, are the causes of the "mental block" from which some *learners* seem to suffer?

Given the assumption that subconscious language acquisition is the *only* true route toward language proficiency, what does this mean for the language classroom? Can acquisition ever be sufficiently approximated in a structured and very conscious classroom learning situation?

Many other research priorities have already been outlined in this paper and in the papers of the three authors. Many more exist. More replication of existing research is needed. We cannot afford to abandon old ideas which have not been fully explored simply because we are tired of them, or because they are no longer in vogue. New avenues of research lay before us; yet our old ones have not yet been sufficiently traveled. There is, certainly, no end to what remains to be discovered and as these authors have pointed out, no end to the methods we can develop to conduct our discoveries.

NOTES

1. Robert E. Slavin, "Basic vs. Applied Research: A Response," *Educational Researcher* (February 1978), pp. 15-17.

2. Joseph E. Hill and August Kerber, *Models, Methods and Analytical Procedures in Education Research* (Wayne State University Press, 1967).

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In stating research priorities for the 80s, it is important to focus and define research efforts in terms of an overall organizing principle or conceptual framework. In general, the adoption of some set of assumptions enhances our ability to ask interesting questions, formulate testable hypotheses, and evaluate and interpret findings. Research priorities, whether they have an applied or a theoretical focus, should deal as directly as possible with the major areas of interaction in the language teaching/learning process: on language itself, on students, and on teachers.

Language Language is here construed in a broad sense. Research about language may be purely linguistic in orientation or it may combine with psychology or sociology in order to include studies of language structure, language dominance, bilingualism, language learning, language acquisition, and learning theory. It is important that we not lose sight of some of the fundamental lacunae in our understanding of the nature of human language. In spite of some promising research over the past several years, we must still confess that we do not yet know precisely what language is, how it works, how it is represented, stored or retrieved in the brain, what the relationship is between language and speech, how a native language is acquired or learned, and how a second language is learned or acquired. Above all, we need to recognize that we do not know whether mechanisms or constructs appropriate to the characterization of native language acquisition or learning are even applicable to the phenomenon of second language learning or acquisition. The psychological reality for the individual faced with acquiring his native language—when compared with that of an adult or even a school-aged youngster trying to learn or acquire a second language—is so radically different that it would be a monumentally important finding of future research to be able to show that any psychological or cognitive constructs would be shared between the two.

Basic psycholinguistic research must be encouraged in native language acquisition in order to facilitate the framing of interesting questions about the nature of human language and thence about foreign language learning or acquisition. Research performed by Lois Bloom, for example, suggests a fundamental link between native language acquisition and basic cognitive development in the individual. Stated simply, plural marking will show up in the speech of individuals subsequent to the development of the ability to recognize and classify the perceptual construct of "more-than-one."

If Bloom's hypotheses are correct, support can be found in them for some of the Natural Order Hypothesis of language acquisition. By the same token, if they are correct then no one should necessarily expect that the order of acquisition of structure in a second language would parallel that of the first or native language, since the conditions under which learning takes place are so radically different. At the same time, however, care must be taken not to infer too much about the nature of human language based uniquely on developmental studies, since language in its final form is clearly structured differently than it was during the process of its acquisition.

Care must also be taken in interpreting and appropriating insights based on the data or basic linguistic research. It is not necessarily the case that what is relatively more complicated in terms of a theory of a language will also be more difficult for a learner/acquirer of that language under all circumstances.

Students Research that focuses on student learning strategies and successes is also urgently needed. Studies must be designed that establish perhaps competing standards of success or failure by students, and that allow us to measure long-term progress in the foreign language so that results can be evaluated objectively. For the moment at least, the profession must be willing to permit different viewpoints to compete and coexist until a commonly-held and accepted vocabulary for discussing different assumptions and approaches can be established.

The distinction between successful communication and successful mastery of the foreign language must always be borne in mind. One can, after all, make oneself understood in gesture or mime, with grunts and groans, or with ecstatic sighs, and never have recourse to any strictly linguistic system. At another level, one can string together lexical items from a given language, with little or no knowledge or concern for the morphological or syntactic rules, and still score a neat 100% success in communication. This should not be confused with having successfully learned the foreign language, even though communication might take place at a level somewhat higher than that of the gesture and the grunt. Thus, even the term "communication" itself is in need of clarification and definition.

Longitudinal studies must be performed so that the long-range effect of a given methodology or procedure can be assessed accurately. Short-term experiments, while unarguably valuable, must not be so broadly interpreted that a momentary triumph is taken as a vindication of an entire philosophy or approach to language teaching and learning. The operative research question, however, is not how well students are able to make themselves understood at some arbitrarily selected time after the beginning of a program. Rather, it should be how well they are able to speak the foreign language at the conclusion of the course of study, and even beyond. Research performed by Ray Clifford (1981, forthcoming) suggests strongly that over time, students who are encouraged to communicate at the expense of grammatical precision indeed do develop a superficially successful communication strategy, but one that makes it subsequently impossible to go back and acquire the grammatical accuracy which may in fact be critical to their overall, long-term success, and which they might in fact be highly motivated to achieve.

Research is still needed in student-centered areas such as data processing mode and the effects of instruction and correction on motivation and achievement. For example, it is easy to perceive the provision of "comprehensible input" as distinct from "instruction" as antithetical. Yet, a close reading of Krashen's work shows that at early levels of second language learning, one of the few sources of "comprehensible input" is precisely the instruction provided by the instructor in the classroom environment. The research question thus becomes one not of finding out whether students learn or acquire a second language better with or without instruction, but rather what types of instructional processes are most appropriate for what levels of student proficiency.

Descriptive research that would establish norms and vocabulary appropriate for discussing matters such as these is itself sorely needed. Again, longitudinal studies are also needed in this area in order to map the changing input needs of students, and to identify if possible the point at which further instruction per se is counterproductive.

Correction techniques and their long-range value represent another fertile area for investigation. There are different questions to be raised that depend on the skill under consideration. Wilga Rivrs, for example, asserts that in correcting student writing samples, if every error of orthography, morphology and syntax is indicated, the student is overwhelmed, and the overall effect on motivation is negative. Yet, research recently carried out at the Pennsylvania State University by John Lalande II shows quite clearly that the participants in his study—intermediate German students of composition—reacted very positively to his practice of blanket correction of errors.

Speech, on the other hand, is such an evanescent phenomenon that both the instructor's and the students' relationship to it is in need of further investigation. What benefit, if any at all, can be derived from correcting speech offered up as free communication—not, that is, in the context of a pronunciation or grammar practice? If some kind of correction can be seen as valuable, when should it be made?

Teachers As for teacher-centered research interests, one might continue to search for descriptors that predict success in foreign language teaching. There are teachers whose students successfully read, write, understand, and speak a foreign language and yet who use apparently diametrically opposed methodologies. If the variables in assessing "success" included only methodology and materials, this result would be impossible. The contrary situation also exists: teachers who are using the same methodologies and materials have domonstrably less success with their students. Is there a way to find out what common denominator if any is shared by unarguably successful teachers?

Summary Research in foreign language education is necessary in viturally all areas associated with the complex of factors that enter into the total experience of teaching and learning: from the languages themselves to cognitive and affective variables that affect learning; from techniques of presenting data to learners to definitions of successful mastery. The state of the art suggests that we are only just beginning to perceive the enormity of the language teaching/learning problem. The magnitude of research needs suggests in turn that we must where possible direct our attention to fundamental issues, whether these be associated with language itself, with learning theory, or with pedagogy. While it is necessary and desirable to structure our investigations around organizing principles and conceptual frameworks, it is also crucial that we not limit ourselves to studies or their interpretations that are narrowly circumscribed by a particular body of theory.

Reactions: Teacher Education

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One of the major issues brought out in the position papers distributed for the Teacher Education section is a need to focus on content and process. As is true in any human circumstance, it is much easier to discuss what we want to achieve than to specify how we will achieve it.

In this reaction paper, I would like to discuss two areas of concern stimulated by the position papers:

(1) Do we place an emphasis on preservice or inservice education?
(2) How does the term "professional" relate to the status of foreign language teacher education?

In addition, I would like to outline some of the constraints on major reform which will make changes in the system difficult. In the last portion of the paper, I would like to recommend some directions for the implementation of some of the outstanding suggestions emanating from the position papers.

The issue of preservice versus inservice education is addressed very directly in Frank Grittner's position paper. The fact that massive inservice training for secondary school teachers has been considered necessary is evidence to the poor job done in undergraduate institutions. The experience with state certification and proficiency tests in Pennsylvania in the 1960s (Perkins[1]) is an example of the indictment on the language development within institutions of higher learning. It is obvious from this experience that a threatening approach will not be received well within the profession.

Professional organizations by their very nature have been preoccupied with inservice rather than preservice concerns. The overriding majority of members are already full-time practitioners. Smith raises the question of the effectiveness of emphasizing inservice education over preservice education in the *Phi Delta Kappan*'s recent issue of Teacher Education.[2] He feels that it is much more realistic to deal with 200,000 preservice teachers per year than to try to deal with the two million teachers in service. While the numbers in foreign language education are only a fraction of those numbers, the analogy is clearly in line. With limited funds we can have a much greater impact if we focus our attention on the minimal criteria for preservice candidates. I would agree with Elizabeth Joiner that preservice education offers a better starting point for pedagogical reform than does inservice education. The establishments of minimal standards such as those suggested by Frank Grittner and the application of these criteria to professional certification would have the effect of reestablishing public confidence in the profession, and would encourage those teachers presently in service to seek realistic and meaningful self-improvement plans (self-service) without being forced into it. Once these systems are operational, Helen Jorstad's excellent suggestions for formats for inservice programs can be implemented.

The second area of major concern is the use of the term "professional" in reference to teacher education in general and foreign language education in particular. Howsam refers to teaching as a "Semi-profession,"[3] citing a profession as a group which accepts a body of knowledge and a repertoire of behaviors and skills. A semi-profession, on the other hand, uses conventional wisdom for a basis of operation rather than valid knowledge.

The real tendency is for educators to serve the institutions they work for rather than their clients. Institutions of higher learning may have a professional advantage over public elementary and secondary schools in this regard. IHEs have struggled to maintain a professional integrity with the tenure system by keeping these decisions peer-controlled. On the other hand, the public schools have based these decisions on the evaluation of administrators. A promotion in a secondary school is not a reward for continuing to do what is done well, it is a reward for earning extra credits toward a totally different phase of education, that of administration. The rewards for the teacher doing an an outstanding job are intrinsic at best and certainly cannot be carried to the grocery store or the bank. It is really important that we establish a professional perspective from elementary school to graduate school if we are to make progress.

A professional should certainly feel some dignity and self-respect. If we analyze teacher burnout, we may find a lot of the causes in the lack of those very feelings. Just analyze what a teacher does during the day in addition to finding some time for developing foreign language skills! I am certain that it would reveal that many of the trivial daily tasks of the secondary school teacher could be handled by someone without professional training. As long as teachers allow this condition to exist, they will be less than a profession.

The discussion of professional versus semi-professional status above has dealt with some of the constraints placed on major reforms in teacher education. There are others, both internal and external. The first is the use of FTEs as a decision-making determinant at universities. With tightened budgets, both departments of foreign languages and colleges of education will become fiercely competitive for student enrollments since they are interpreted into jobs. This situation immediately creates conflicts: language versus literature; educational foundations versus student-teacher supervisors. These decisions are further aggravated by tenure decisions. If a faculty member cannot attract new enrollments is he or she really worth keeping around? Do the younger faculty members really keep professional considerations utmost in their minds when faced with possible termination and little prospect of future employment in higher education?

In addition to internal factors, external factors must also be overcome. The first of these is the sheer limitation on funds available to educate teachers. If there are fewer students to train, it should be possible to do a better job, providing the present funding level can be maintained. Within the university culture, the college of education and the department of foreign languages and literatures receive a lower priority in the allocation of university funding, in many cases.

As the public clamors for better schools, and the profession seems unable to meet the challenge, the government often takes over. Recently, in South Carolina, the legislature voted to appoint a task force to establish teacher examinations for certifying teachers in the content areas. That plan has become bogged down in legal entanglements and is probably destined for failure. The tests were designed to be paper and pencil, multiple-choice type. If the profession does not take over this business, the government may.

What, then, can we do to set priorities for the next decade in foreign language teacher education?

(1) We must continue to foster research in teacher education so as to increase our measure of professionalism.
(2) The standard for approved programs in foreign languages similar to those recommended by Grittner need to be validated and a mechanism for measuring the ability of teacher candidates needs to

be implemented. This is particularly important in the area of language skills. As James Firth points out in the preface to *Measuring Spoken Language Proficiency*, the MLA-ACLS Task Forces of 1977 and 1978 said that one of the "main sources for dissatisfaction with the present status of language study (is) a failure of the language teaching profession itself to direct its collective energies toward definable goals."[5]

If this information can become a standard part of our undergraduate training programs, we can move ahead light years in our ability to communicate with fellow professionals about the language skills we want our students to possess. As Dale Lange pointed out recently, the areas of language proficiency and cultural experience are more supported than any other areas in the teacher education process.[6]

The cultural experiences should be validated by a living experience abroad. It has been recommended in the position papers that this type of experience or its equivalent be an integral part of professional certification.

(3) In line with the Reports of the MLA-ACLS Language Task Forces,[7] ACTFL needs to outline programs and materials dealing with effective approaches to the teaching of the foreign language for elementary and secondary school foreign language teachers. These materials can be disseminated to instructors of foreign language methods courses for preservice education. In addition, specially selected individuals can provide inservice programs for teachers through regional, state, or city workshops.

(4) Implementation of any type of reform in foreign language teacher education would be simplified considerably if David Benseler's idea for the American Language Association[8] could be implemented.

Many of our problems professionally are inherent to our organization, or lack of it. Only when foreign language instructors of all languages, at all levels, realize their own needs in comparison to a professional norm, can we really make large strides forward.

NOTES

1. Jean A. Perkins, "State Certification and Proficiency Tests: The Experience in Pennsylvania," *Foreign Language Annals*, 2(1968), 195-99.
2. Othanel Smith, "Pedagogical Education: How About Reform," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 62(1980), pp. 87-91.
3. Robert B. Howsam, "The Workplace: Does It Hamper Professionalization of Pedagogy," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 62(1980), pp. 93-96.
4. Gene Lyons, "Why Teachers Can't Teach," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 62(1980), p. 112.
5. James R. Firth, ed., *Measuring Spoken Language Proficiency* (Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press, 1980), p. vi.
6. Dale L. Lange, "Suggestions for the Continuing Development of Pre- and In-service Programs for Teachers of Second Languages," in Jermaine Arendt, Dale L. Lange, and Pamela J. Myers, eds., *Foreign Language Learning: Today and Tomorrow* (New York: Pergamon Press, 1979).
7. Richard I. Brod, ed., *Language Study for the 1980s: Reports of the MLA-ACLS Language Task Forces* (New York: Modern Language Association, 1980), p. 22.
8. David P. Benseler, "The American Language Association: Toward New Strength, Visibility, and Effectiveness as a Profession," in Thomas H. Geno, ed., *Our Profession: Present Status, Future Directions*, Reports of the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (Middlebury, VT: Northeast Conference, 1980), pp. 143-56.

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Upon first reading of the papers assigned to me for reaction I had a perception which still seems to persist. It's a perception of tremendous assumptions on the part of the authors: (1) they are assuming that foreign language teachers are interested in growth and development; (2) they are assuming that they are aware that they might be professionally inadequate; (3) they are assuming that foreign language teachers belong to an organized profession and participate in its functioning; (4) they are assuming that we are a profession which can design, implement, and enforce needed changes; (5) they are assuming that institutions responsible for the formation of foreign language teachers are ready to do what a non-existent profession tells them to do. To my way of thinking, and based on my experience, *none* of the assumptions can be made.

As for the people whom we find here today, we can perhaps assume that they are interested, competent, and professionally oriented. The question now looms: how do we make other colleagues aware of their attitudes, inadequacies, and indifference?

An even more perplexing question lurks behind this initial interrogation: How did these foreign language types arrive at this set of attitudes? I'm wondering if part of the answer is not to be found in the content of these papers: there's just too much to be done here. We're being totally idealistic once again and failing to realize that we might be asking for just too much of both our preservice and inservice personnel.

Now that I've shared my first impression, let me get down to some of the reasoning behind my statements.

Frank Grittner's paper tells us, at least by his title, that there might be some way to "break out of the never-ending circle of retraining." I do not always agree with him, since he himself says that knowlege is undergoing "rapid expansion."

Teachers, upon completion of their B.A. or B.S. degree have *not* necessarily acquired the basic knowledge, techniques, and skills of their trade, but they think they have. As Grittner says, the amassing of credits or the "taking" or courses proves nothing. Nor can we assume that teachers will seek out and profit from "independent study, conferences, workshops, and summer school programs." Even if "existing educational agencies" can and will do "what needs to be done," there is no assurance whatsoever that teachers will avail themselves of these programs. What is missing here is the sense of professional duty and pride in doing something in depth and doing it *well*. It reflects itself in our curricula as we eat through France, drink through Germany, dance our way through Spain, and sing through Italy.

Dr. Grittner is most wise in being wary of the role of higher education in helping to solve the dilemma, since in most cases academia was and is responsible for the problem. For the most part, academe has no idea at all what goes on in the elementary and secondary schools; nor is it interested in those levels; therefore, it is hardly in a position to design programs, materials, and techniques for those levels.

Grittner's solution is perhaps contained in his suggested set of standards, but I'm overwhelmed at their scope, their intended audience, and their feasibility. I'm certainly for high levels of performance—excellence, even; but who can possibly meet these standards? at what level? in what order? and who implements them?

My own unending circle comes back to its original point of departure: there's just too much to do. No foreign language teacher—elementary, secondary, or university—can attain these skills and abilities. This is not to say that the attempt should not be made. However, when these types of standards are felt to be unattainable by those aspiring to be foreign language teachers, it leads to the frustration and final apathy which plagues not only our profession but many others. This is the caveat about which I spoke in the beginning of this paper. There's too much to be done. Frustration—Apathy—Mediocrity will be the undesirable outcomes of such undirected standards.

My paper is not going to end on this note. It is going to suggest, rather, that the language acquisition process be separated from the language pedagogy process. The point at which the two will come together will be at the end of this paper.

Professor Jorstad, I fear, is not as wary of the IHEs; she says that they "must provide ways for teachers to study *language, linguistics, non-fiction literature*, and *culture*." I'm more than willing to grant that many larger, high-powered, and intelligently administered and staffed universities might be willing and able to do this, but mainstream colleges and universities are not equipped to do this, nor do they always see it as their function.

Most *language* teachers teach language courses because they *have* to do so; it usually means, in higher education, that there are no longer enough graduate assistants to do the "dirty work." *Linguistics* courses are taught; they might be an adjunct of an English department, a sociology department, or even an anthropology department.

Literature of the non *belles-lettres* nature is an unknown entity to Ph.D.s with Middle Ages, Renaissance – 16th – 17th – 18th – 19th Century specializations. Strangely enough, this "small l literature" contains the very essence of the "small c *culture*" which Professor Jorstad would also have our college types teach. I'm sorry – but they are just not willing to do it, nor are they going to recycle themselves to do so.

So where does this lead us?

It seems to me that the profession must identify those individuals who *are* willing, *are* able, and are *desirous* of fulfilling the Jorstad canon and then proceed to set up a structure of its own. As Grittner says, let's have the "profession generate suggested models for improving both the preservice and the inservice aspects of foreign language teacher education." This could all very well take place on one of the nation's campuses, but let's make sure that those who are doing the tasks are those whom *we* have identified, not the on-the-spot, tenured-in campus "specialist" who says that he's going to show us how to use theatre techniques in the modern foreign language classroom, and then ends up giving us his regular course in "18th Century Drama."

Another feature that makes me somewhat hesitant about this whole scene is, again, the amount that has to be done. It brings me back to my original comment about the quantity of the material to be covered – even more perhaps to the content and its quality. Do young American foreign language students truly need all that we feel they should be given? Wouldn't some of these cultural phenomena about which we speak be better off taught in the social studies classes? For instance, in the two examples of compare and contrast concerning American and French cultures which were given to us courtesy of the State of Minnesota, I calculated that it would take about two full periods of a five-period week. Given all the other activities and demands that are a part of the foreign language teacher's task, I wonder when the foreign language itself is being taught.

Jane Bourque once coined what I call the three A's: Acquisition – Application – Appreciation. There are certain tasks, activities, and skills which can and should be taught and experienced only in one of these categories and at a certain time in the development of a language. *Acquisition* of a first language is the first step. It usually begins in the preschool years and should continue as a life-long process. It is codified and refined in about the first six years of the schooling process, under normal circumstances. Until that language is *acquired*, true application, intelligent use of that language, will not be apparent.

Let us now apply this to the learning of a second language. Where are those years of preschool experience in the language? Where has the codifying and refinement process taken place? Where has the acquisition of the language taken place? in the Level One class? Can we make up for a childhood plus six years of schooling experience in a classroom with 40 minutes a day – five days a week – for 38 weeks?

What about *application*? I look upon this as assigned and directed tasks in the first language leading toward a particular goal or set of goals, and is somewhat evidenced in the junior and senior high school curricula. Acquisition is certainly still taking place as new vocabularies of specialized subjects are introduced to the learners. During this period they will have had between 12 and 18 years of day-to-day experience in the mother tongue. In any case, acquisition and meaningful application activities are now able to be combined in a developmental and intelligent pattern.

Let us now apply this step to the learning of a second language. Since we couldn't possibly acquire at the acquisition stage, how can we imagine that we're better off at this stage? Does this application process just move on to the Level Two class? We are now presuming that there has been a childhood, six years of codifying and refinement, six years of directed application, and that the next level of accomplishment is now at hand.

Let's move on to *appreciation*. Appreciation can only occur in the first language when there have been multiple and successful experiences of the combined acquisition and application activities.

Let us now apply this step to the learning of a second language. We cannot expect appreciation if acquisition and application have not taken place in their proper psychological setting. The Level II student is supposed to have thoroughly acquired the language; so we logically conclude that his powers of appreciation are totally developed and ready to be used.

In the English language, seventh graders might read Moby Dick and discover a good whaling story, but I doubt very much that they'll discover an allegorical novel. Their literary experience has not yet been developed to that point. The same applies to a student of a second language.

I should now like to return (and conclude) with some observations about the pedagogical process, and include Elizabeth Joiner's 40 statements about language teaching at all levels in the comments.

I would like to see or take the excellent ideas – both programmatic and structural – of all three of these papers and put them into sequential and practical modes of operation. We have the knowledge – contained in these papers and elsewhere – to be able to do this, but it all needs some kind of focus. I would like to suggest that we go to the three A's again. First, let us decide exactly what it takes to acquire a language; let's plan it sequentially, sensibly, and with a progression which is measurable. Let us then decide, realistically, at what levels of instruction this process should occur and design these materials to do it at that level. Let us train the teachers in the task of teaching language acquisition and then set about the task of teaching language acquisition. Second, let us decide at what point true language *application* can be taught. Let us plan it, too, sequentially and sensibly, giving it performance-oriented tasks and activities which can prove growth and can be measured. Third, let us decide at what point in the acquisition and application process the student is ready and able to appreciate. Upon doing this, let us decide exactly what is to be appreciated, let us add whatever elements of continued acquisition and application are needed to complete the task. Further, let us design the necessary materials and then train the personnel in aesthetics, linguistics, psychology, social studies, art, music, literature, and anthropology to go about the task that needs to be done.

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The main purposes of this reaction paper are: (1) to summarize the thrusts of papers written by Frank Grittner, Elizabeth Joiner, and Helen Jorstad on the topic of teacher education; and (2) to offer evaluative comments which perhaps indicate areas where a national position paper on this topic ought to make an impact.

Each of the papers makes certain fundamental assumptions about teacher education for the 1980s:

(1) Whether the issue is preservice, inservice, or retraining, there is a need for professional standards for foreign language teachers.
(2) The accumulation of course credits either from colleges/universities or school district inservice workshops by foreign language teachers is not likely to significantly change the quality of foreign language teaching in the United States.
(3) Research and experimentation into the types of teacher training which best serve the needs of U.S. foreign language education are essential to long-term efforts toward improvements in classrooms.
(4) Excellent programs in Teacher Education exist and their strengths should be studied and disseminated.
(5) In its own way, each of the papers views the recommendations of President's Commission report, *Strength through Wisdom*, as one way of responding to cultural/language knowledge and skill development for foreign language teachers.
(6) The foreign language teacher is a *person* who has many different roles—disseminator of information, motivator, experimenter, researcher, politician, counselor, *ad infinitum*.

In the next section of this reaction paper, specific commentaries on the Joiner, Grittner, and Jorstad papers will be presented.

"Preservice Teacher Education: Some Thoughts for the 1980s," written by Elizabeth Joiner, is a carefully conceived set of statements which the author calls "basic contentions." Numbering forty in all, they range from a global call for "greater commitment on the part of all language instructors to the preparation of teachers" to the specific recommendation that this decade must involve "the selection and recruitment of *desirable* candidates for teacher training."

In many of her "basic contentions," Joiner uses the term "should . . . ," thereby reflecting a *belief* system which must be accepted by the profession. Thus, one outcome of a professional priorities conference might be the initial validation of such a list with subsequent follow-up refinements as are needed.

As she indicated in her paper, Joiner views a set of "basic contentions" as having certain inherent limitations due to space and other constraints. Several of her items seem particularly worthy of acceptance by the profession as a whole; these include numbers 6, 17, 20, 29, and 40 (see Joiner's paper).

Finally, the Joiner list of "basic contentions" needs to be subdivided into categories which would make their impact clearly focused. The following groupings might be useful: *General* (Items 1, 4, 10, 12, 20, 22, 28, 38, and 39); *Teacher Education Curriculum* (Items 13, 16, 17, 18, 34, and 35); *Requirements* (Items 5, 9, and 11); *Instructional Delivery System* (Items 6, 7, 14, 19, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 29, 31, 32, and 33); *Research* (Items 8 and 40); *Admissions and Follow-up* (Items 3, 36, and 37). These categorizations are purely suggestions and should be modified as needed. *However*, the potential impact of such statements is much more manageable if a list of forty ideas is organized around central themes. These categories might well be matched to a general *model* of teacher education which would lead eventually to wide application in diverse situations throughout the United States.

"Inservice Teacher Education: Content and Process," by Helen Jorstad, is a cohesive statement dealing with one of the most crucial areas facing the teaching profession today. Dividing the *content* section of the inservice education with three sections—language skill development, cultural understanding, and methodology—Jorstad contends that teachers must be involved in continual professional development.

Her section on cultural understanding is particularly noteworthy. She recommends that "both cultural content and an explicit process for learning to understand and teach about another culture are needed." That suggestion is a cogent one because the inclusion of an emphasis on culture, particularly "way-of-life" culture, has become a part of most (if not all) foreign language classes in the United States.

What Jorstad calls an "explicit process" is excellent because it presents an aspect of both the U.S. student's own culture and a similar phenomenon in the foreign culture he or she is studying. This recommended process emphasizes an "involved" learner who sets out to discover aspects of the foreign culture by hypothesizing plausible views and subsequently validating or rejecting these based on both "new" information and interactions with other students and the teacher.

Jorstad states that many innovative methodologies remain essentially untapped. *Knowledge* of these approaches is essential if *applications* are to be made in individual classrooms throughout the United States. Analysis and application research in language learning and teaching, contends Jorstad, have not become part of the training of many inservice teachers. In a few areas of the country, curriculum innovations in foreign language program development seem to be on the increase. These activities frequently result in significant amounts of teacher involvement, often enthusiastic, because teachers see some usable product at the end of the activity. This area of curriculum development is one in which foreign language education might take a leadership role. To the degree that teacher education inservice programs in the foreign language area provide training for teachers, it is likely that interdisciplinary and other reach-out activities will succeed. The Jorstad recommendation that foreign languages for special purposes might follow the English as a second language pattern is an insightful one.

Perhaps the one section of Jorstad's paper which needs to be reconsidered, or at least amplified, is that dealing with formats for inservice education. How do these formal programs help the inservice teacher to diagnose his or her own strengths and weaknesses? Any inservice program for the 1980s ought to emphasize this orientation.

Grittner's paper, "How Do We Break Out of the Never-Ending Circle of Retraining: A Self-Adjusting Mechanism for the 1980s," is written in a clear and persuasive manner. Grittner states that student-teachers "would be taught how to evaluate their performance as teachers and how to monitor (and improve) their performance in the language itself." He continues: "Of equal importance would be an attitudinal commitment to lifelong improvement in both areas." Is that not one role of such a conference and the national representatives who attend it?

Grittner has proposed a set of "standards" for Approved Programs in Foreign Languages, which, if adapted and expanded, might well be an essential part of a document already described in the Joiner paper. Grittner's "standards" include the following points:

(1) The program shall provide for the development of skill in the use of the target languages;
(2) The program shall provide for the development of skills in language analysis;
(3) The program shall provide for the development of knowledge and skills necessary to teach the culture of the target language using that language as the primary instructional vehicle;
(4) The program shall provide for the development of abilities necessary to plan and implement foreign language instruction;
(5) The program shall provide for the development of professional awareness and responsibility.

One of the follow-up activities of the conference should be the perusal of these and other statements with the ultimate goal of providing a single-ACTFL-endorsed set of standards which should subsequently be channeled to appropriate groups throughout the United States (e.g., teacher training institutes, state education department certification units, local school districts, AATs).

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As one who has taught in four countries and at three levels, and has been involved for years in teacher preservice and inservice education, I found myself torn between strong assent and equally strong dissent before the three position papers by Grittner, Joiner, and Jorstad. The former reaction relates to the numerous excellent remarks and recommendations contained in all three papers; the latter to a basic lack of unity and, so to speak, directionality. It is not the presence of any deep disagreements between the three papers that disturbs me, but the lack of a clear indication that we as a profession know where we should be going and *why*.

I am delighted with the strong insistence in all three papers on solid language competency for foreign language teachers, and with the demand that universities should offer more advanced language classes. I take exception, though, to some sweeping generalizations that universities are only interested in specialized literature or linguistics courses, and I have a question about how many teachers are ready to take advantage of language classes as part of their "continuing education." I applaud the idea of making residency abroad a requirement for teacher certification: how can one who has never "lived a language" in a living environment make it alive for others? I would even go one step further and recommend that a minimum time of residency or travel abroad within a, let's say, ten-year span ought to be a requirement for recertification.

I agree with the idea of a fifth-year teacher apprenticeship before certification provided it is more than an extended, glorified student-teaching. I would go one step further and recommend that, within perhaps five or six years after their first preliminary certification, foreign language teachers should obtain a master's degree if they want to receive non-probationary certification.

I also agree strongly with the idea that recertification must depend on course work done in the subject area for which recertification is sought. And I hail as an important recommendation that the profession begin to consciously develop an attitude of self-assessment and self-improvement at the level of our teacher training programs. Without such a personal ethic of professional growth we can hardly consider ourselves professionals.

The value of the many laudable recommendations is limited, however, because it is generally not clear how they are related to all the others and on what philosophy and assumptions they are based. The idea, for example, that new pedagogical approaches be widely disseminated and that teachers and teacher trainees should be exposed to them is, in itself, not objectionable. But it may become so, it seems to me, if it results essentially from the belief that the infallible method exists which, once discovered, will solve our problems. This is then the area where I disagree: the overall framework, the focus, is not there. This is the result of the division of labor approach under which one author wrote about preservice, another about inservice, etc. Some of the essentials that still need to be worked out are:

(1) A coherent diagnosis of what the basic problems are. It is a complex question, of course, where factors of culture and tradition, basic philosophy, and geopolitics play a role. I contend that the rather widespread marginal competence or outright incompetence of many foreign language teachers is the single most important and immediately accessible cause of the relative failure of foreign language instruction in the United States. In my estimation, several generations of American teachers have been led to believe that the answer to successful teaching lies in the method, the delivery, the "packaging." Any national document on teacher education should strongly assert the primacy of solid language competency over knowledge of methodology. Of course, knowledge of the subject matter alone does not make for good teaching. Good teaching is also a function of methods, strategies and sometimes gimmicks, of experience, of personality and character, enthusiasm, love, and perhaps humility. But no amount of all these can replace subject mastery.

(2) Assumptions reveal how problems are perceived and why certain solutions are suggested. They are an essential part of that about which a consensus must be reached. The following assumption clusters ought to be examined:

- (a) Assumptions about our discipline, especially about language: What do we as members of the language teaching profession assume to be the mission of our discipline, and the role of language within that discipline and for its mission?
- (b) Assumptions about teaching in general and language teaching in particular: How do we define the role(s) of the teacher? How does that definition determine the kind of teacher education we want?
- (c) Assumptions about the trainability of teaching practitioners: Do we assume that basic patterns of teacher behavior are largely fixed by the model behavior of one's own teachers, or that most teachers are unwilling or somehow unable to change and improve?
- (d) Assumptions about language learning and learner's motivations, objectives, and processes. We all remember the days when adolescent and adult language learning was assumed to be the acquisition of speech habits through repeated use and when, as a consequence, the role of the teacher was defined essentially as that of a drill master. Do we still cherish these assumptions? or have they been modified? or entirely replaced?

(3) I particularly urge that a place of prominence be given to a brief but concise exposition of what "language" is to the profession. There are many views of what our mission ought to be. Each one of these perceptions is based upon its own assumption of what language and language knowledge is, and each one of these assumptions is defensible and perhaps convincing. But by exposing all of these different assumptions, we have far too often permitted ourselves to be torn in different directions, and fragmented to the point of schizophrenia. One such decision would be to reassert what in my opinion would be the fundamental mission of our profession: to teach as best as we possibly can and within the multiple limitations we may have to accept, the use of that complex tool. Then we would train our teachers to be, first of all, masters in their language. There will still be enough topics for disagreement, but then, too, we can make more intelligent decisions on questions such as objectives per level, materials development, the contribution and relative importance of advanced courses for teachers, or the claims of new or not-so-new discoveries.

Of course, we must continually choose: which grammar and which culture content should a first-year high school class have? Should the syllabus of an introductory college course be determined by functional/notional, cultural, or linguistic criteria? Should the decision be the same for an advanced college course? Is a course in the history of the language or in advanced stylistics more appropriate for future teachers? How much training in literature should future teachers be expected to have? But if we accept the complexity and wide applicability range of the tool "language," we may be able to decide such selection questions within the framework of our entire discipline. The reason why the articulation of programs and levels is problematical in this country is not only one of organization, but also one of outlook and philosophy.

Summary

I would like to propose the following format for the yet to be written ACTFL Position Paper on Teacher Education:

1. A general *Preamble* which recognizes:
   - (a) the individuality of both teacher and student, and
   - (b) the diversity of foreign language instruction in the United States.
2. A concise and complete statement on the most important basic *Assumptions* as outlined above, out of which will be developed:

3.1 The formulation of *objectives of teacher preservice education*, and

3.2 *specific recommendations on how* these can be reached, including standards for certification, and
4.1 the formulation of *objectives of teacher inservice education*, and
4.2 *specific recommendations on how* these can be reached, including *standards for recertification*.
5. *Recommendations on how* teacher preservice and inservice education can be *monitored, evaluated*, and if need be, *modified*.
6. Guidelines for universities, state education departments, school boards and school administrators on how these various recommendations can be implemented and translated into *action programs*.

Appendices

A. Two or three "model programs" for preservice teacher training to illustrate possibilities for implementation.
B. Two or three "model programs" for inservice activities (with and without the participation of an institution of higher learning) for illustrative purposes.
C. A brief, realistic analysis of the problematics of Teacher Testing.

As a separate document destined for discussion and adoption by all foreign language professional organizations, ACTFL should prepare a proposal for the establishment of a widely recognized and truly *National Foreign Language Accreditation Association* that would evaluate, monitor, and recognize teacher training programs throughout the nation.